The Education Digest

CONTENTS

25th Year of Service

Little Red Schoolhouse	NEA Research Bulletin	1
How the Ford Fund Makes a Grant	School Management	5
What Price Double Sessions?	National School Boards Association	9
An Educational Ranking of the States	Overview	12
The Strategy of Freedom	John W. Gardner	15
What Psychology Can We Feel Sure About?	Teachers College Record	18
Trends in Teaching High-School Science	The Nation's Schools	21
Crisis in Language Training	American Scholar	25
Adapting Instruction to Learning Needs	Journal of Education	28
Our Student Council Is Over-Sponsored	School Activities	32
The Gifted and Talented	Review of Educational Research	34
Essay Contests Are Educationally Undesirable	NASSP Bulletin	37
Paperbacks and Hardbacks	The Clearing House	40
Junior College Growth	Junior College Journal	42
A Critical Reading Laboratory	Reading Teacher	45
Manuscript Writing after 60 Years	Elementary English	48
With Education in Washington		51
Educational News		55
New Educational Materials		58
Index to Volume XXV (1959-60)		60

Volume XXV May 1960 Number 9

NEW "EASIER-TO-LEARN WITH" VIEWLEX V-25-P
DOUBLES EFFECTIVE LIGHT POWER
AT NO EXTRA COST!

Viewlex V-25-P 500 WATT
COMBINATION FILMSTRIP-SLIDE PROJECTOR

The progressive Viewlex V-25-P 35mm Filmstrip and 2" x 2" Slide Projector moves A. V. TEACHING POWER years ahead—in a single giant stride! The ultra-advanced new light source combined with the new optical system in the V-25-P literally makes it "Easier to Learn With" . . . provides twice the effective light power on-screen—at no extra cost!

With these exclusive new Viewlex features—

NEW—Revolutionary "Pop-up" lamp ejector makes lamp changing quick and easy.

NEW—Thermal-engineered super-cooling system that permits unlimited showing time, lengthens lamp life by combining unique Venturi-style lamp-housing with special Airjector opening built into newly designed die-cast base.

NEW—Elegant two-tone Charcoal and Dawn Grey "Wrinkle" textured finish.

PLUS—These additional features made famous by Viewlex:

- Simple 3 second, push-in filmstrip threading.
- Projects single or double frame filmstrip, vertical or horizontal, or 2" x 2" slides.
- Changes in seconds from film strips to slides.

Only $92.50

Also available—New Viewlex V-45-P for Filmstrip only. Has all other features of V-25-P.

Only $79.50

NEW MULTI-FOCAL ACCESSORY LENS produces images that fill screens of varied width at a given distance without moving projector or refocusing lens. It has an infinitely adjustable 3½" to 6" focal length all in one lens.

$49.50

Other Viewlex projectors available from $50.25 to $495.00. Ask your Viewlex Audio-Visual franchised dealer for a demonstration, or write for catalog.

All Viewlex Projectors are GUARANTEED FOR A LIFETIME

Viewlex Inc. **35-09 Queens Boulevard** **Long Island City 1, N. Y.**

World's Largest Exclusive Manufacturer of Slide & Filmstrip Projectors

25th Anniversary Year

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

Copyright 1960 by Lawrence W. Prakken

Volume XXV | MAY 1960 | Number 9

It Still Plays an Important Role

Little Red Schoolhouse

In NEA Research Bulletin

MOST young people are not acquainted with one-teacher schools, but their fathers and certainly their grandfathers are not strangers to them. The alumni of one-teacher schools remember with mixed feelings the box-like wooden structure, the hand water pump, the woodshed behind the school, the two little outhouses far in the background, and the potbellied stove surrounded by rows of desks and benches.

For families living in sparsely settled plains and mountain communities the one-teacher schools were indispensable. With better roads, school buses, and school district consolidations, the number of one-teacher schools has diminished, but the important role these schools are still playing in providing education for some American children cannot be ignored. For the sake of hundreds of thousands of children still dependent on these schools, the remaining one-teacher schools must be made as good as possible.

Reported from a survey made by the NEA Research Division and published in NEA Research Bulletin, *XXXVIII* (*February* 1960), 3–10.

Recently, the NEA Research Division conducted a national study of one-teacher schools. It was learned that while these schools are being abandoned rapidly, many such schools are still in operation. Nearly 400,000 children, or 1.1 percent of all American children enrolled in public schools, went by foot, automobile, bicycle, or on horseback to nearly 24,000 one-teacher schools in 1958-59. Twenty percent of the public schools in the United States are one-teacher schools. Their teaching staffs represent 2 percent of all classroom teachers.

Concerning the buildings themselves, the study revealed that the average one-teacher school is 43 years old. More than half of the

Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich. Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Mich., and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Ind. Subscription, $5.00 a year.

school buildings were built between 1900 and 1929. And more than one-fifth of them were constructed before 1900, some of these even before 1870. Yet most teachers considered their buildings generally satisfactory. Although about two-thirds had no inside toilet and more than half used stoves to heat the building, 97 percent of the schools had electricity.

Eighty percent of all one-teacher schools are concentrated in 12 states. These states are: Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Wisconsin, Michigan, Kentucky, and West Virginia. About 52 percent of the schools reporting were located in open country, 38.3 percent in centers of less than 150 population, and 10.1 percent in villages of 150 population and over.

THE TEACHERS

The teachers of one-teacher schools were asked a number of questions about their personal and professional status. The replies can be compared with data representing all American public-school teachers reported for the year 1955-56.

The widely accepted notion that the one-teacher schools are staffed by young unmarried schoolma'ams with only a high-school education lacks foundation. The average teacher in a one-teacher school is 45 years old, married, and has two children. She is two years older than the average of all public-school teachers. Only 8.3 percent of the teachers in one-room schools are men and they are—with a median age of 31.5—much younger than the women teachers.

In the United States, the 1955-56 study revealed, about two-thirds of *all* elementary-school teachers had a bachelor's or higher college degree; one-eighth held a master's degree. The teachers in the one-teacher schools do not meet such high academic standards. Nearly 84 percent of them have had less than four years of college preparation. Only 16 percent have had four or more years of college, and only 3.2 percent have had five or more years of college preparation.

The percentage of women teachers having certificates representing full qualifications for their positions is higher than that for men teachers—about 87 percent of the women teachers and 70 percent of the men teachers have full certification. A smaller percentage of men teachers have certification than women teachers despite the fact that men teachers on the average have longer educational preparation.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

The one-room school teachers had an average of 11 years of teaching experience in 1959, of which three years were spent in their present school. The women teachers had an average of 11 years of teaching experience, while men teachers had only six years, a difference that would be expected in

view of the higher average age of the women teachers. It was found that the teachers with the most experience are employed in the larger communities.

A study of teacher load, made by the NEA Research Division in 1950, showed that American public-school teachers spend an average of 48 hours a week on school duties inside and outside school. The 1959 one-room school survey indicates that in the one-room schools the typical teacher spends 54 hours a week on school duties, the men spending a little less time in school than women teachers but a little more time outside school hours in school duties.

SALARIES

Yet these one-room teachers are not as well paid as other teachers. The average salary of the one-room school teacher in 1959 was $2,954, only 61.6 percent of the U. S. average for all classroom teachers. There is considerable difference among the salaries paid one-room school teachers by region. The highest average salary is in the Far West, the lowest in the Southeast. Although men teachers have fewer years of teaching experience and fewer of them hold full certification, their median salary is slightly higher than the median salary of women teachers. The median salary of men teachers was $2,957, and that of women teachers, $2,921.

Despite these conditions, when the teachers were asked whether they would teach in a one-room school if they could start over again, 94.2 percent answered yes! When they were asked if they planned to continue teaching, 39.8 percent said they definitely planned to continue teaching, and 28.8 percent said they probably would. Only 13.7 percent said that they definitely would not continue teaching, and 17.7 percent said that they probably would not.

There are two opposing points of view regarding the value and future of the one-teacher schools. One group believes that part of the solution to the problem of rural education lies in replacing all the remaining one-teacher schools with centrally located larger graded schools. These people say that only a large school with several teachers and a large well-equipped plant can effectively and economically provide the various educational services required to meet the needs of children today.

Opposing this view are those who are convinced that there are circumstances under which it is better to keep the one-teacher school than to subject children to the fatigue and hazards of transportation to distant centers. Some people believe that the small schools can provide nearly as good an educational experience for the rural child as can a large school. They say, also, that these schools help keep the function of education in the community, help maintain a community center within easy reach of every farm, and, be-

cause classes are small, are more conducive to quality education.

In the Research Division study, the teachers were asked: "Do you think it would be possible to consolidate your school with another school in the area?" About 66 percent said it was possible, 24 percent said it was not possible, and 10 percent had no opinion. The 66 percent comprised 46.6 percent who favored consolidation, 13.7 who did not favor consolidation, and 5.6 percent with no opinion.

Teachers opposed to the consolidation of the schools gave some interesting reasons for their views. Here are a few examples:

"It has been voted down twice—takes too much money." (New Hampshire)

"Patrons object—young children leave home too early on buses and return too late." (Missouri)

"Children get more individual attention in a small school." (Minnesota)

"'Johnny' has a better chance to learn to read in his own home school." (Minnesota)

"Most of the people are going to move if the school is consolidated. The school could be repaired and electricity could be easily furnished." (New Mexico)

"Spend a little money on them, and with a good teacher they are better than crowded buses and rooms." (Kentucky)

"Many times these consolidations create overcrowded conditions, long rides on buses over rough roads, and parents live too far from school to take active part in PTA activities." (Kansas)

"All Amish—they do not want to go to school with the English." (Pennsylvania)

"The little democracies seem to be doing all right as is." (South Dakota)

"The people are backward and do not wish to lose the school." (Illinois)

"The parents wish to keep the school because it is considered one of the oldest one-room schools in the country, and is the center of community activity for this particular area." (West Virginia) •

AN 1872 list of rules for teachers, posted by a New York City principal, included: Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and scuttle of coal for the day's sessions. Men teachers may take one evening each week for courting purposes, or two evenings a week if they go to church regularly. After 10 hours in school, the teachers should spend the remaining time reading the Bible or other good books. Any teacher who smokes, uses liquor in any form, frequents pool or public halls, or gets shaved in a barbershop will give good reason to suspect his worth, intentions, integrity, and honesty.—From *Esso Manhattan.*

An Interview with Philip Coombs

How the Ford Fund Makes a Grant

In School Management

WHEN the Ford Foundation began to plow millions into our educational wastelands a few years ago, it was greeted with universal praise. Today, a substantial section of the educational community takes a less-than-enthusiastic view of its work.

How can you make enemies by giving away money? It's easy, when you establish firm policies as to what kind of projects you will support with grants. It's even easier when you are willing—through obstinacy or courage—to run head-on into powerful groups that are hostile to theories you are backing.

Educational television is a good case in point. The Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education (its main educational arm) have poured millions of dollars into projects designed to encourage the use of television as a teaching tool. Professional teaching organizations have taken violent exception to what they believe is overemphasis of an instrument they classify only as an interesting adjunct to classroom instruction.

Television isn't the only sore spot. Many competent educators feel that the Fund's criterions for making grants are too restrictive, that its officials back only those ideas which interest them personally. Others challenge the right of a few individuals to dole out tax-free "public money." Still others mumble vaguely that "It's easier to get a million dollars than a thousand."

The Fund has its supporters, too. To them, it is just what its name implies—a fund for the advancement of education. They see it as one of the very few public or private forces willing to invest "risk capital" in pioneering projects. They point to the debilitating delay that confronts almost every new idea in education before it gains acceptance.

Because of the many myths and misapprehensions that have grown up around the name "Ford Foundation," *School Management* editors recently held a tape-recorded

Reported from School Management, *IV* (*February* 1960), 50–54, 110, 113, 114.

interview with Philip H. Coombs, secretary of the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Some of the questions and answers from that interview follow:

Question: Just what kind of work are you interested in financing? What does the Fund for the Advancement of Education see as its primary objective?

Coombs: We have felt from the outset that one of the greatest needs of American education was for what has been called "risk capital." That is, funds—often modest funds—to try out a new idea. We have felt all along that educational advancement requires not only larger expenditures, but a change in the way of doing business. In this sense, we are in the business of change. We are giving encouragement and support to people in education, at all levels, who have promising ideas that might make education better.

SPECIFIC AREAS

Question: What are some of the specific areas that you are interested in?

Coombs: There are three general problem areas that interest us. The first has to do with personnel of the schools—their recruitment, utilization, working conditions, opportunities for growth and advancement. This has been our most important area of concentration. A second category is program, because it is the combination of personnel and program that really constitutes the essence of the education process. Here we are especially interested in problems of curriculum. We are more concerned with the total curriculum than any one subject, but we would define curriculum broadly enough to include all the exposure to learning that a student has. For example, we are concerned about the "lock-step" in education because it holds some back and pushes others too fast. Likewise, we are interested in such things as independent study, tape teaching, televised instruction as means of improving the quality and depth of learning. The third category is somewhat harder to define. It is the relationship of the educational system to society. Here, for example, you get into problems such as the economics of education. How do you finance education? Society has to do that. We are concerned with equality-of-opportunity in education. This is a broad social matter, involving such problems as segregation, economic barriers to higher education, and so on.

APPLICATION FORMS

Question: Suppose a district has an idea in the area defined, how should this district go about contacting the Fund? Do you have an application form that a superintendent can use for this purpose?

Coombs: We don't have any application forms. We are very informal. I would say that a school district that feels it might want to turn to us for support ought first to write us a letter. It doesn't have

to be a fancy letter—it can be an initial contact. We can usually tell them, right off, whether this is the kind of thing that we might be interested in or not. If we are interested, then we can arrange for them to give us more information, or we can have one of our staff people visit them, or they can visit us.

Question: When you make a grant, who administers the money? Is it controlled by the Fund or the local district?

Coombs: We send out a grant letter to the appropriate body that is legally equipped to receive these funds on a tax-exempt basis. Usually this is the local school board. We then state the terms of the grant—derived from the applicant's own proposal—and state the duration of the grant and request a financial report at the end of the fiscal period. The district is then on its own. It is bound only by the terms of its own request. It is expected, of course, to use the funds for the purpose for which they were granted.

(Mr. Coombs went on to say that the Fund asks for progress reports, but that they keep to a flexible arrangement. They do try to keep in contact with the projects but make no systematic evaluation during the course of a project.)

STRINGS ATTACHED?

Question: Are there any strings on a grant? Are you going to be standing over their shoulders watching? Must a district permit you to come in, with outsiders, to scrutinize what it is doing? There is a feeling that, somehow, if a district takes this money, it is going to get a form of outside control. Is there any truth in this?

Coombs: I doubt that this is a widespread fear. Much more often a school or college is anxious to get external recognition of the merit of its undertaking. We are dealing with a voluntary part of our society. After all, no one is obliged to ask the foundation for money, or to take it if they don't want to. They can send it back at any time.

This happened, on one notable occasion, when a school board in a major city got all split up over an issue that we had nothing to do with. It concerned a question of whether Unesco materials could be used in the schools. Somehow, this got fouled up with the project that we had given a few hundred thousand dollars for, and the check was returned. This was all right with us. We gave the same money to some neighboring school systems to do the same thing, and it worked out very well. There is no problem of Fund control. We have no control. The only string attached is that you do what you say you are going to do, that you use the money to run the project the way you said you would.

Question: Suppose that, in the middle of a project, the people doing it learn something that they think dictates that they head in a new direction. Suppose they need to take a 90 degree turn from what

was originally proposed. Any objections?

Coombs: If it is a 30 degree turn, they can go right ahead and do it. But if it is a sufficiently great departure from the thing they said they were going to do, they should come back to us—and this is frequently done—and tell us why they think it would be more fruitful to do it a different way. Almost invariably we agree with them.

THE SMALL GRANT

Question: It has been said that if a school district were to write to you and say it wanted $100,000 *to do something, it would get much better and more favorable consideration than a district that asked for only* $1,000 *or* $1,500. *Is that true?*

Coombs: That is certainly one of the myths that is abroad. Let me say this as a general statement: We are not primarily concerned with the dollar sign that is attached to a particular proposal. On the other hand, there are not many school systems in the country that couldn't scare up $1,000 for a really good idea in which local people believed. But the cost might be $15,000, and for many school systems this is real money.

Question: Then you don't encourage the small grant?

Coombs: I think we should be wary of getting sentimental about the small grant. There are two occasions where I think a small grant by a large foundation is warranted. One is when you're probing a really fresh area. A fellow comes along and wants a little bit of money to probe that area. If it looks like a probe that is promising, you ought to give him the money. The other occasion is where you've already spotted, on the basis of experience, a problem that needs to be attacked by maybe 25 different school systems. It won't take too much money for any one of them, but collectively it will take quite a bit. You may end up with a series of related small programs. And I think for a large foundation these are *the* two appropriate places for small grants.

Question: Then it would also be a myth that if one asks for a small grant of $5,000 *or* $10,000 *you almost automatically get the money because the Fund is just willing to give this sum away?*

Coombs: That is very much a myth. Actually, a grant request for $5,000 or $10,000 may actually get as many hours of attention here as a grant for $500,000. This is one of the problems of the small grants—they frequently require as much administrative effort by us as a big grant. We don't want to use our money up in administrative costs. Incidentally, another myth is that foundations don't support creative individuals, only group projects and institutions. It is true that most of our grants flow administratively through institutions, but a large portion of the money actually goes to the support of individuals in the form of fellowships, travel, and research grants, and the like. •

Less Education and a Poorer Quality

What Price Double Sessions?

NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARDS ASSOCIATION

FOR more than a decade, in most American communities the building of schools has not kept pace with the rapidly increasing school-age population. Only school districts with farsighted school boards, administrators, and citizens have provided enough classrooms as they have been needed. Others have waited until the rising tide of children has forced action to be taken—action that has been often too little, and practically always too late.

What usually happens to schools when a district fails to plan for rising tides of enrolment? First, more and more children are packed into classrooms and buildings never intended to carry such loads. Then all kinds of makeshift spaces are used to hold classes—stores, basements, churches, vacant houses. Finally, no more space can be found and still there are children entitled to an education. So nothing remains to be done except to put the schools on double sessions.

Most public-school leaders believe that double-session arangements can only have detrimental effects on efforts to operate a good educational program. But sometimes taxpayers have been inclined to believe that there are real advantages in double sessions. They argue that such a plan will be more economical, that it will make better use of the school facilities, that it will employ the teachers' time more efficiently, that the students will receive just as good an education, or maybe an even better one. What are the facts?

Reported from the pamphlet What Price Double Sessions?, *published by National School Boards Association, Evanston, Ill.* (1959), 3–15.

Here are some of them as they have been learned during an investigation made by Eugene Oliver at Northwestern University in 1957. He learned what happened at Arlington High School, Arlington Heights, Illinois, when the district there found double sessions unavoidable while awaiting the completion of additional facilities to handle a bulging enrolment.

The Arlington High School building was designed to accommodate 1,100 students. That year 1,739 students were enrolled. It may be said, with truth, that there was here one obvious advantage. It did permit schooling for all these students which would have been impossible under the normal, single-session schedule.

The plan of scheduling adopted was a typical one. Juniors and sen-

iors attended classes from 7:25 A.M. until 1:10 P.M., while the freshmen and sophomores were in school from 11:00 A.M. until 4:45 P.M. Three lunch periods were scheduled during the "overlap" time when all students were in the building, so that one-third of the students were in the cafeteria and classroom space was available for the remaining two-thirds during this time.

LENGTH OF SCHOOL DAY

The length of the teacher's day was not changed by double sessions—it remained eight hours. The student's day, however, was reduced from seven hours to five hours and 45 minutes. Instead of a schedule of five 55-minute periods, two 40-minute periods, and a 30-minute lunch period, the students were given a schedule of two 55-minute periods, four 40-minute periods, and a 40-minute lunch period.

Some of the obvious disadvantages were connected with the reduction of the time students spent in school. They also spent less time in school before and after class periods. This must be associated with tight bus schedules and the elimination of the "activity period" which in the normal schedule had followed the last class period. The period had been a time for make-up work, extra help for students, and teacher-student or counselor-student conferences.

The elimination of the activity period also affected student participation in the extracurricular program at Arlington High School. This had included athletics, dramatics, speech, music, publications, student council, and all student clubs. Student participation dropped 54 percent. Some activities were dropped and others were curtailed. Generally speaking, not only the students but also teachers and parents agreed that these activities were desirable and that their reduction was an unfortunate result of double sessions.

RESULT ON GRADES

As for grades, they declined slightly during the year of double sessions. Students whose grades were above average before double sessions showed the greatest loss, while those whose grades were below average before double sessions held their own. The net effect of double sessions on Arlington High School's academic program was undesirable, to say the least.

What about cost? The per capita pupil costs for the year of double sessions were compared with those of the preceding year. These costs were based on expenditures from the educational fund, which included instruction, teaching materials, building operation and maintenance, administrative expense, classroom equipment, and auxiliary services (transportation, school health program, and school lunch program). Expenditures from the building fund were not included. The per capita costs rose from $406.52 during the year pre-

ceding double sessions to $437.43—a 7 percent increase.

It would be unwise to conclude, however, that the increase was the result of double sessions. Factors more likely associated with the rising cost per pupil were the rapidly increasing enrolment, the increasing wage scale for all school employes, and the increasing cost of all school supplies. In one specific area—transportation—the costs were reduced. The per capita cost has continued to rise in Arlington following the return to a single session schedule.

It thus appears that double sessions are not a means of lowering the costs of the current expenses of public schools.

Dr. Oliver's study—which also included 12 other high schools—suggests that no community should allow itself to reach the necessity for double session in its high school without strenuous efforts to secure the needed additional facilities in time. But if, as in Arlington Heights, a community must face a double-session schedule for a year or more to accommodate all its youth, Dr. Oliver suggests certain steps that might be taken to reduce the ill effects.

TO REDUCE ILL EFFECTS

First of all, he believes that as many provisions as possible should be made for individual attention to pupils. A library schedule also should be developed which would encourage maximum use. A striking reduction in the use of the library was a fact revealed by the study. Depending on the community, this might include evening hours, opening early in the morning, and placing more emphasis on the use of library resources during the class period.

Watch carefully the effect of the double-session schedule on the extracurricular activities program. If space cannot be provided in the schedule for the continuation of most of the program, survey community resources for activities which can be expanded to attract high-school students during their free time.

And finally, don't worry too much, at least during the first year of double sessions, about such matters as student behavior in or out of school, on student attitudes toward school, or on school spirit and morale. Pupils, teachers, and the community are less affected when they respond to a temporary emergency situation which is soon to be remedied. As one school administrator commented, "It wasn't as bad as we expected it to be, but we were surely happy when it was over."

Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that when double sessions are resorted to it appears that children receive less education and a poorer quality of education. They pay the highest price—a handicap at the start of life. But the community pays, too, and in the long run the nation pays because its human resources have not been developed to their fullest potential. •

Where Does Your State Stand?

An Educational Ranking of the States

WALTER CROSBY EELLS

In Overview

WHEN recently the National Education Association published its research report, *Ranking of the States,* placing the states according to 60 different measures, it stated: "No single set [of measurements] provides a complete and final answer to the question of how a state ranks, but a combination of several of them throws considerable light on this complex question." The NEA report, however, did not attempt to combine the different measures.

From this NEA report I have selected 20 factors which seemed to me to be educationally significant. No claim is made that the ranking which I have used furnishes "a complete and final answer" but rather that it summarizes in a significant way some of what the NEA report refers to as part of the "complex factors that must be considered in placing a value on a state's system of public education." Ten of the factors I have selected indicate methods and results, and 10 are financial factors indicating ability and effort.

The education factors I used include: (1) median school years completed by persons 25 years of age and older, 1950; (2) percent of the population 25 years of age and older with less than five years of schooling (ranking made according to the best record); (3) percent of the population 25 years and older with at least four years of high school, 1950; (4) percent of the population 25 years or older with four or more years of college, 1950; (5) percent of the selective-service registrants disqualified by the mental test, including those who failed the physical as well as the mental test, 1957 (ranking according to the best record); (6) enrolment in the public elementary and secondary schools as a percent of school-age population, 1957-58; (7) average length of school term in days, 1955-56; (8) average daily attendance as a percent of the number of pupils enrolled, 1955-56; (9) high-school graduates in 1955-56 as a percent of eighth-grade enrolment in 1951-52; and (10) percent of elementary-school teachers with four or more years of college preparation, 1958-59.

The 10 financial factors I selected for the ranking were as follows: (1) estimated average salary of instructional staff in public

Walter Crosby Eells is a veteran educator, widely known for his work in junior colleges, higher education, and educational research and statistics. Reported from Overview, 1 (*March* 1960), 57–59.

schools, 1958-59; (2) estimated increase in average instructional staff salary from 1957-58 to 1958-59; (3) percent increase in average salary of instructional staff, 1948-49 to 1958-59; (3) percent in average salary of instructional staff, 1948-49 to 1958-59; (4) estimated current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance, 1958-59; (5) percent increase in current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance, 1948-49 to 1958-59; (6) state aid per pupil in average daily attendance, 1957-58; (7) percent of general expenditures of state and local governments for local schools, 1957; (8) per-capita state expenditures for education, 1957; (9) personal income per child of school age (5-17), 1957; (10) personal income payments in 1957 per pupil enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools, 1957-58.

I did not try to assign different weights to the various factors, although this would be desirable if there were a way to determine satisfactorily such weights. The simple average of the ranks of the various states were computed and used to determine the ranking of the states on the composite of the measures. It is fair to assume that the validity of this average is greater than that of any of the component factors.

The highest ranking states—those in the top quarter—are located in the Far West and in a group bordering on the Great Lakes. Those of the lowest rank are found for the most part in the South, although some of the southern states are in the second and third quarters.

Great variability is found in the rank of the states in the different measures. California must be given first place according to an average of all the 20 factors listed. Yet California actually ranks first in only a single measure, and in one it drops to 48th place. But it ranks in the first quarter in 13 of the 20 measures and has a higher average rank than any other state. Utah ranks first in two educational measures and in the first quarter in eight of the 10, but is only 35th in the group of financial measures. Utah appears to secure a high standard of public education without making an excessive financial effort.

Delaware, on the other hand, ranks in the first quarter on nine of the 10 financial factors, but is 24th in the average of educational measures. It would appear that Delaware's results are hardly commensurate with the financial investment made. It is interesting to note, however, that educational and financial factors agree very closely in the case of such states as Nevada, Ohio, Illinois, Oklahoma, Arizona, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, North Carolina, West Virginia, Arkansas, Kentucky, and Alabama.

The ranking of the states in the 20 measures of educational achievement and effort follows on the next page.

	All 20 *factors*	10 *educational factors*	10 *financial factors*
First Quarter			
California	1	2	8
Delaware	2	24	1
Oregon	3	3	15
Wyoming	4	4	14
Nevada	5	8	10
Michigan	6	14	6
Alaska	7	19	4
Washington	8	5	17
Pennsylvania	9	29	2
District of Columbia	10	26	3
New York	11	27	5
Minnesota	12	15	11
Utah	13	1	35
Second Quarter			
Connecticut	14	11	16
New Jersey	15	23	7
Iowa	16	13	22
New Mexico	17	35	9
Colorado	18	10	25
Ohio	19	18	19
Kansas	20	7	29
Maryland	21	36	12
Florida	22	17	23
Massachusetts	23	12	32
Illinois	24	25	24
Missouri	25	38	13
Indiana	26	33	20
Third Quarter			
Oklahoma	27	22	26
Idaho	28	6	44
Arizona	29	28	27
Hawaii	30	21	33
Nebraska	31	9	47
Maine	32	20	37
Wisconsin	33	30	28
Montana	34	16	43
Texas	35	39	18
Vermont	36	31	36
New Hampshire	37	32	42
Virginia	38	37	31
Georgia	39	45	21
Fourth Quarter			
Rhode Island	40	40	38
N. Carolina	41	42	41
Louisiana	42	44	30
S. Dakota	43	34	50
S. Carolina	44	46	34
N. Dakota	45	41	49
W. Virginia	46	43	46
Tennessee	47	47	39
Arkansas	48	49	45
Mississippi	49	51	40
Kentucky	50	50	48
Alabama	51	48	51
Puerto Rico	52	52	52

Other Statistics

• As many people were enrolled in educational courses last year as comprised the *entire* U. S. population during World War I. More than 100 million men, women, and children were engaged in a formal quest for knowledge during the year.—From *Overview.*

• Add to shortages plaguing the nation: We shall need 556,642 more salesmen by 1965. And salesmen of quality are hard to get.—From *Printer's Ink.*

• North Carolina was the first state to require polio vaccinations for school children. Beginning last fall, all six-year-olds entering public schools had to be immunized against the disease.—From *The Nation's Schools.*

A Free Man Lives for Himself and His Society

The Strategy of Freedom

JOHN W. GARDNER

I DOUBT that many Americans recognize the extraordinary extent to which education has gained a central position in our national life. It is no longer on the edge of things; it is in the middle of the stage. It has become one of our deepest and most persistent national concerns. We are about to see the first presidential campaign in which every candidate will be expected to have a position on educational problems.

In no segment of the educational scene has this rise to prominence been more dramatic than the case of the colleges and universities. We have now available authoritative discussions of the critical problems facing higher education. But we have not yet adequately discussed the larger framework in terms of which our higher education must be meaningful. What are the overarching tasks for higher education in the years ahead in the kind of world we will live in? What should be the aims of free men and what should be the aims of higher education?

Every free man lives for himself, but he also lives for his society. His goal must be not only individual fulfillment but the enrichment and strengthening of his society. In a sense, all the things that a free man cares about are related to one another: individual fulfillment, the strength and vitality of his society, the preservation of a system of values which makes freedom possible. Thus, whether one is talking about measures to strengthen the society, about the elimination of barriers to individual freedom, about the improvement of education, or about greater dedication to our shared purposes, one is talking about different aspects of the same thing. And I am going to call this thing *the strategy of freedom.*

The first ingredient in the strategy of freedom is immensely intensified emphasis on individual fulfillment in our society. We must renew our efforts to remove barriers which exist for disadvantaged individuals in our society—barriers of poverty, of prejudice, and of ignorance. We must seek to under-

John W. Gardner is President of Carnegie Corporation of New York. *Reported from an address made by Mr. Gardner on December* 9, 1959 *at the McGraw-Hill Book Company's 50th Anniversary Celebration to present the volume embodying its study,* Financing Higher Education: 1960-70.

stand all the varied circumstances which cause individuals to level off short of their full capacities. We must strive through the educational system and through adult education to encourage lifelong learning. We must emphasize the varied kinds of excellence of which humans are capable. We must help individuals to seek these excellences and to find them. We must, above all, strengthen every aspect of our educational system.

PHILOSOPHY OF INNOVATION

The second ingredient in the strategy of freedom is a philosophy and a technique of continuous innovation, continuous adaptation. Only through the full flowering of such a philosophy and such techniques can we keep a free society vital. The potentialities for creativeness, for inventiveness, for flexibility and adaptiveness are infinitely greater in a free society than in any other kind of society. In a rapidly changing world these are precious attributes—attributes that may have much to do with our survival. But even in a free society these potentialities can be smothered under the dead weight of custom, inertia, smugness, red tape, and vested interest. All too many of us are fearful of change or are too lazy to learn new ways. And all too many of us have a stake in preventing change.

The third ingredient in the strategy of freedom is better comprehension of the relationship between organization and the individual, better understanding of how we may use organization constructively to achieve our purposes without at the same time destroying some of our cherished values.

It is futile to hope that the movement toward the more intricate organization of human affairs will reverse itself. Many of the things which our free society must accomplish can only be accomplished through such organization. We know that there are forms of organization which foster freedom and forms which stifle it. Our task is to ensure that the organizations—and I'm speaking of corporations, labor unions, governmental bureaucracies, any and all of the organizations which are essential to our purposes—will take forms that preserve individual freedom.

REGARD FOR EXCELLENCE

The fourth ingredient in the strategy of freedom is a regard for excellence. We need not here explore the innumerable invitations to mediocrity which exist in our kind of society. Suffice it to say that they *do* exist and that their very existence requires powerful counterpressures. Those of us who are most deeply devoted to a democratic society must be precisely the ones who insist on excellence, who insist that free men are capable of the highest standards of performance, who insist that a free society can be a great society in the richest sense of that phrase. The idea for which this nation stands will not survive if the highest goal

that free men can set themselves is an amiable mediocrity.

And the final ingredient in the strategy of freedom is dedication. No great thing is accomplished without devotion. The preservation of a free society, the enrichment of the system of values on which freedom depends, the building of a great civilization—these things cannot be achieved by listless men. We shall need all of the devotion, all of the commitment, all of the moral purpose that lies in us.

ROLE OF THE COLLEGES

And now let me return to the colleges and universities. They have a major role—I am tempted to say *the* major role—in fostering the strategy of freedom. They are powerfully committed to a philosophy of individual fulfillment. They understand the dynamic power of knowledge to induce change, and understand how and why we must adapt ourselves to change. There is no segment of the population that is more deeply committed to keeping the individual free in a world of organization, or better able to develop the technical knowledge made necessary by the complexity of modern organization. Nor is there any segment of the population more deeply committed to the idea of excellence. And finally, college and university people have exhibited in their own lives a higher quality of dedication than is apparent in many parts of the society.

No one knows better than I do that many of our colleges and universities have fallen short of these high goals. Many are by no means unconfused in their recognition of these objectives. But I should like to think that the universities will lead the way for all of us to a clearer comprehension of the tasks which lie before us. And I like to think that they will then become the engines of progress helping to move us toward these important goals.

The universities are well equipped to see our national aims in historical perspective. I have said that we must have concern both for the individual and for society. We must have another kind of double vision. We must understand the problems which our society faces both with respect to its monetary needs and its long-term objectives, its external crises, and its intrinsic goals. The international tensions of the moment are a grim reality and only fools will ignore them. But the aims of Americans have deeper roots. In the eighteenth century the founders of this nation set out to prove to the world that free men could create a great civilization. This is the goal we must keep before us. We may never achieve it if we fail to cope with the threats of the moment. But its validity does not depend on such threats. This is a pact we made with ourselves.

That is something the universities will remember. It is something none of us should ever forget. •

1960

Propositions Based on Firm Facts

What Psychology Can We Feel Sure About?

GOODWIN WATSON

In Teachers College Record

EDUCATORS who wish to apply psychology in their professional work have long been troubled by controversies among psychologists themselves. Behaviorism arose to challenge the introspective method; Thorndike's connectionism was controverted by Gestalt concepts; psychoanalysts talked an almost completely different language. It was natural for teachers to say, "Let's wait until the psychologists themselves straighten out their various systems!" It looked for a while as if one could support almost any educational practice by choosing which psychologist to cite.

A workshop of educators recently asked me to formulate for them some statements of what we really know today about children and learning. We know that gradually a body of pretty firm facts has been accumulating. To my own surprise I was able to prepare a list of 50 propositions with which few knowledgeable psychologists of *any* "school" would disagree. From these 50 propositions, a selection which should be useful to teachers in their work with children are given below.

Learning Process

1. Behaviors which are rewarded (reinforced) are more likely to recur.

2. Sheer repetition without indications of improvement or any kind of reinforcement is a poor way to attempt to learn.

3. Threat and punishment have variable and uncertain effects on learning; they may make the punished response more likely or less likely to recur; they may set up avoidance tendencies which prevent further learning.

4. Reward (reinforcement), to be most effective in learning, must follow almost immediately after the desired behavior and be clearly connected with that behavior in the mind of the learner.

5. The type of reward (reinforcement) which has the greatest transfer value to other life-situations is the kind one gives oneself—the sense of satisfaction in achieving purposes.

6. Opportunity for fresh, novel,

Goodwin Watson is Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. *Reported from* Teachers College Record, *LX* (*February* 1960), 253-57.

stimulating experience is a kind of reward which is quite effective in conditioning and learning.

7. The experience of learning by sudden insight into a previously confused or puzzling situation arises when: (*a*) there has been sufficient background and preparation; (*b*) attention is given to the relationships operative in the whole situation; (*c*) the perceptual structure "frees" the key elements to be shifted into new patterns; (*d*) the task is meaningful and within the range of ability of the subject.

8. Learners progress in any area of learning only as far as they need to in order to achieve their purposes. Often they do only well enough to "get by"; with increased motivation they improve.

9. Forgetting proceeds rapidly at first—then more and more slowly; recall shortly after learning reduces the amount forgotten.

Teaching Method

1. Children are more apt to throw themselves wholeheartedly into any project if they themselves have participated in the selection and planning of the enterprise.

2. Reaction to excessive direction by the teacher may be: (*a*) apathetic conformity, (*b*) defiance, (*c*) scape-goating, (*d*) escape from the whole affair.

3. Learning from reading is facilitated more by time spent recalling what has been read than by rereading.

4. Pupils *think* when they encounter an obstacle, difficulty, puzzle, or challenge in a course of action which interests them. The process of thinking involves designing and testing plausible solutions for the problem as understood by the thinker.

5. The best way to help pupils form a general concept is to present the concept in numerous and varied specific situations, contrasting experiences with and without the desired concept, then to encourage precise formulations of the general idea and its applications in situations different from those in which the concept was learned.

Level of Challenge

1. The most effective effort is put forth by children when they attempt tasks which fall in the "range of challenge"—not too easy and not too hard—where success seems quite possible but not certain.

2. According to some studies, many pupils experience so much criticism, failure, and discouragement in school that their self-confidence, level of aspiration, and sense of worth are damaged.

Subject Matter

1. No school subjects are markedly superior to others for "strengthening mental powers." General improvement as a result of study of any subject depends on instruction designed to build up generalizations about principles, concept formulation, and improvements of techniques of study, thinking, and communication.

2. What is learned is most likely to be available for use if it is learned in a situation much like

that in which it is to be used and immediately preceding the time when it is needed.

Individual Differences

1. No two children make the same response to any school situation. Differences of heredity, physical maturity, intelligence, motor skills, health, experiences with parents, siblings, playmates; consequent attitudes, motives, drives, tastes, fears—all these and more enter into production of each child's unique reaction. Children vary in their minds and personalities as much as in their appearance.

2. Pupils vary not only in their present performance but in their rate of growth and the "ceiling" which represents their potential level of achievement. Some "late bloomers" may eventually surpass pupils who seem far ahead of them in grade school.

3. Gains in intelligence test scores by children are positively related to aggressiveness, competitiveness, initiative, and strength of felt need to achieve.

4. Pupils grouped by ability on any one kind of test (age, size, IQ, reading, arithmetic, science, physical fitness, etc.) will vary over a range of several grades in other abilities and traits.

Attitudes and Learning

1. Children tend to select groups, reading matter, TV shows, and other influences which agree with their own opinions; they break off contact with contradictory views.

2. Children remember new information which confirms their previous attitudes better than they remember new information which runs counter to previous attitudes.

OTHER PROPOSITIONS

Now a few facts about "group relations": Pupils learn much from one another; those who have been together for years learn new material more easily from one of their own group than they do from strangers. Children learn that peer consensus is an important criterion; they are uncomfortable when they disagree with their peers, and especially when they find themselves in a minority of one against all the others. Leadership qualities vary with the demands of the particular situation. A good leader for a football team may or may not be a good leader for a discussion group, a research project, or an overnight hike; leadership is not a general trait.

As to "social stratification": Children are likely to choose most of their "best friends" from homes of the same socioeconomic class as their own. Children who are looked down on (or looked up to) because of their family, school marks, social class, race, nationality, religion, or sex tend to adopt and to internalize this evaluation of themselves. Children who differ in race, nationality, religion, or social class background, but who play together on a footing of equal status and acceptance usually come to like one another. •

Highlights from a Survey

Trends in Teaching High-School Science

LEO E. BUEHRING

In The Nation's Schools

IN a recent study of practices and trends in the teaching of the sciences in American senior-high schools, *The Nation's Schools* asked questions of schools located in 57 districts and 38 states. The questions asked ranged all the way from those concerned chiefly with curriculum to such practical matters as budgets for the purchase of supplies and even the methods used for applying for equipment items.

Questions also were asked concerning the views of science department heads and others about desirable changes which could or should be made. Again these ranged from curriculum to equipment, and views were expressed by those queried on such diverse matters as the proper length of the science class and laboratory periods, on the value of science fairs, on the use of noncertified assistants, about the differences made in their own schools in science courses offered to college preparatory students and others, on mathematics requirements, and a score of other pertinent topics.

In this shortened report it will be necessary to depart from the question and answer format and to omit views on a number of matters which the full survey included. Some significant trends can, however, be pointed out and these should be of interest to all those who are concerned with the place of science in senior-high schools of today.

Changes in the science curriculum that had taken place in the last five years was one of the first questions asked in the survey. It was learned that such changes are mostly in subject emphasis rather than in the development of new courses. The theoretical approach to subject matter is being stressed, as opposed to applied science exercises. Better guidance facilities are being made available, and there is better grouping of the less able as well as the talented.

In the biology curriculum attention is given to biochemistry, radiation biology, and microbiology. Students are introduced to the use and limitations of wonder drugs

Leo E. Buehring, who compiled the survey, is Feature Editor of The Nation's Schools. *Reported from* The Nation's Schools *LXV (February* 1960), 77–86, 88.

and some background is developed in blood typing and genetics. Instruction with reference to atomic fallout is given.

Chemistry studies are more closely related to the human body and its processes, including a study of cell structure. An effort is being made to blend basic understanding of principles with applications. In physics there is a deeper probing into electronics and an emphasis on theory and Newton's law of motion.

A question which asked what science topics had been deleted, minimized, or reorganized in the last five years brought out answers that were significant. Respondents indicated that today there is *less* emphasis in high schools on historical science and on such practical items as how to make soap or how to build a radio. General science courses of the survey type are being offered less frequently. In the freshman year the beginning course is often biology. In the upper grades there is increasing emphasis on the physical sciences.

In biology, rote learning has been replaced by the study of relationships between major principles. In physics, certain phases of mechanics, heat, metals, weather, and conservation have been deleted on the assumption that these are treated adequately in junior-high school. Such simple applications of science as the steam engine have been relegated from physics classes to lower grade general science.

Other subjects eliminated are: the mechanics of automobiles and television sets, and purely descriptive phases of chemistry and biology. Formal notebooks and workbooks are fewer. In areas in which practical applications of textiles and agriculture formerly were stressed, these are being minimized, as also are health topics, botany, zoology, learning classifications, and organizational schemes.

REORGANIZATION TREND

It was learned also that there is a trend toward reorganization, fusion of subjects, and integration. Commonly science and mathematics have become more closely related, particularly in the advanced courses. Experiments are being conducted in teaching larger groups, usually with the aid of educational television and other audio-visual materials. The common trend in sequence appears to be biology, chemistry, and physics, often beginning with the ninth grade and leaving the twelfth grade for advanced work. A step in the direction of giving all science courses a laboratory approach is evident.

Most schools have provided additional learning opportunities for high-school students with special talents.

Almost every school system sampled reports having science clubs in operation, ranging from biology and chemistry to radio and photography. Special field trips are a regular part of the science program of most schools. Some systems pro-

vide additional opportunity for the talented in science during the summer months. There are, however, as yet few evening classes or Saturday classes except as they are offered by local colleges or universities.

Respondents were asked also to comment on special classes or a modified curriculum program to facilitate the teaching of science subjects to slow learners. Most schools appear to be making an effort to provide these students with at least a sufficient science background for daily living. Many report that various forms of grouping provide a solution to this problem. There also appears to be a belief that students of poor ability in science and slow learners in general usually do not elect science courses beyond the minimum requirements.

SCIENCE FAIRS

With negligible exceptions, the reporting districts state that they conduct science fairs in at least some of their schools, or participate in regional and other science fair projects. In some instances, the community fairs serve as screening devices for regional science exhibitions.

Just about every respondent has something favorable to say regarding science fairs, although most are aware of the difficulties and shortcomings inherent in this type of program. Among the *advantages* listed are the following:

Science fairs are incentive devices, creating interest in science courses for both student and public. They can provide excellent motivation for out-of-class study and more intensive and extensive participation in creative work. Younger students see the exhibits and become interested in enrolling in science courses.

Gifted students are stimulated by science fairs to apply scientific principles and to use scientific methods, as well as to utilize the resources of the community. Competition with others academically is thought to give stature to academic ability. Opportunity for student experimentation is provided along with a chance to explore special interests, and to express individual ideas and differences. For those qualified, an opportunity is provided to do independent research and original work and to make contact with professionals in the field. For the school an opportunity is provided to tell the story of the school's K-12 science program and to create a broader interest on the part of citizens.

In many cases the same persons who stated the advantages of science fairs also pointed out the *disadvantages*. Some of these disadvantages mentioned are: Dishonesty can be encouraged; too many projects are done by parents or with too much help by other persons, with the student receiving credit for work he did not do. The number of entrants has become too large and projects are poor and repetitious; copy projects defeat the

objectives of a science fair. Some believe that too much emphasis is placed on the mechanics of preparing an exhibit rather than on true scientific value. The display is likely to be artistic rather than scientific and lean toward kits rather than originality and learning experiences. Not only that, but exhibits cost money and students from low-income groups cannot compete fairly with students from higher-income brackets. Too often fair participation is a novelty that soon wears off; interest stimulated is not sustained until the next fair. Spur-of-the moment activities may follow cookbook type instruction, which has little scientific value. At the other extreme is the student who attempts a project that lies outside and above his scientific background.

Perhaps the most frequently mentioned danger, even by those who plan to continue their science fairs, is that the students spend too much time on "projects" and too little time on homework. Also, a tremendous amount of time is added to the teachers' load after school hours, with the event becoming the public relations focal point for the instructional program in general, thus losing its true purpose. Because of the time required, other basic activities may suffer, and the fair may interfere with regular class work.

In connection with the time needed by the teacher in carrying out these fair projects and his class work, the survey revealed the fact that as yet science teachers have little noncertified help, such as student teachers, laboratory assistants, and clerical aid. Results of the sampling show that, by and large, science instructors run their own show without any assistance.

Districts were queried about the methods they use to evaluate their science instruction. Replies indicate the following procedures: Teacher-made tests appear to be the backbone of science instruction evaluation, with virtually every district in the sampling reporting this method. Following closely are standardized tests, including Ohio's every-pupil test in science, the Iowa test of educational development, and the New York State science survey test. Almost two-thirds of the districts sampled use work products as criterions, and about one-third make use of anecdotal records. Other miscellaneous methods are: following up graduates, departmental tests, practical tests, teacher-group sessions, and permanent student records including college reports and laboratory assignments. •

Science—Examination Style

• Sea water has the formula CH_2O.—From *Science Review.*

• When a volcano spits fire it is called saliva.—From *San Francisco Teachers Journal.*

An Overhauling Is Needed

The Crisis in Language Training

JACOB ORNSTEIN

In The American Scholar

AS the United States has come to take an increasingly important role in international affairs, the inability of its citizens to communicate in anything but English has been a handicap in both war and peace.

In our present position of Free World leadership, we continue to find a lack of languages to be a constant stumbling block in our efforts to communicate with other nations and to understand them. Now when so much emphasis is being placed on "person-to-person" diplomacy in the idealogical struggle between East and West, our unilingualism contrasts sharply with the linguistic versatility of other peoples. The Soviets, for example, have made it perfectly clear that they consider language training to be no less important than science and technology. It is little wonder that their overseas personnel have amazed even such polyglots as the Swiss and the Danes by their ability to handle languages.

When the state of Libya was established a few years ago, the Russians immediately dispatched a mission of 15 Arabic-speaking diplomats to that Middle Eastern land. The United States had only one Arabic linguist.

The Soviets insist that their foreign representatives acquire the language of the country for which they are bound, as well as one or two useful secondary tongues, before they ever set foot on its soil. By painful contrast, perhaps one in 30 of America's overseas representatives can speak fluently the languages of the countries to which they are sent. How well can the message of democracy be carried by persons unable to communicate in anything but English?

It is not only in diplomatic affairs that our traditional linguistic ignorance is costly. The task of keeping abreast of scientific, technological, and intellectual developments abroad becomes more staggering with the general increase in

Jacob Ornstein, who is the author of several books on language, literature, and the problems of international communication, is on the staff of the United States Department of Agriculture Graduate School. Reported from The American Scholar, *XXIX* (*Winter* 1959-60), 75–81.

literacy throughout the world. It is not surprising that many otherwise well-informed Americans were profoundly shocked, in the wake of Sputnik I, to find that of the 1,200 or so Soviet scientific publications that we receive, less than 50 were until 1957 regularly translated and analyzed. The American scientist who can read Russian is almost as rare as the whooping crane. In a survey I made, just prior to 1957, it was found that only 165 of our 1,800 colleges even taught Russian—and this to a mere 5,000 students. This number, of course, is insignificant when compared with the estimated 10,000,000 Russians of all ages who today are studying English.

How did it happen that Americans have remained unilingual—that not only the average citizen but also our intellectual elite came to adopt the hapless philosophy of "Let Them Learn English"? There are reasons of course. Geography and certain features of our historical and cultural development have played their part. It is currently fashionable to hold the educational system responsible for all that ails us as a nation. But the entire blame cannot be placed at the doorstep of American schools.

It is largely through the schools, however, that the situation must be corrected. Encouraging developments have taken place and more are projected. But today we still are failing to meet all but a fraction of our language needs.

This generally dismal picture is relieved by a few bright spots here and there. The 85th Congress passed the National Defense Education Act, which authorizes a total of $887,000,000 to be utilized for a four-year program of development of science, mathematics, and language training. Moreover, a number of conferences have been called recently at which national leaders in many fields have tried to come to grips with our nation's language deficiencies.

OUR PRESENT NEEDS

In final analysis, however, the solution to our foreign-language problem does not lie in the calling of high-sounding conferences or the appropriation of large sums by Congress for "crash programs," no matter how meritorious. What is needed is a complete overhauling of our antiquated language teaching system—or lack of system—and its replacement by facilities suited to twentieth century needs. This means a program in which both the quality and quantity of language instruction would be vastly improved.

It would require the introduction of a modern language in the elementary school and its continuation for from six to ten years—through high school and part of college. Every youngster of average intelligence would thus be assured of a reading, writing, and speaking knowledge of at least one foreign language by the time he is graduated from high school. College programs would then be able

to provide advanced training and specialized study. There is nothing visionary about such an objective when one considers that many smaller and less prosperous nations succeed in equipping their young people with not one but several languages.

Old-fashioned teaching methods that have made language study anathema to generations of young Americans need to be revamped by stressing the actual use of the foreign tongue and making fuller use of modern audio-visual devices. The range of languages taught in both high schools and colleges must be expanded to include such major world tongues as Russian, Chinese, Arabic, Hindi, and Indonesian.

Language careers need to be made attractive to both teachers and students, through scholarships, travel fellowships, and the general improvement of monetary and fringe benefits. Moreover, there is a need for the creation of a national coordinating council, composed of government, academic, tourist, and business leaders, to give sane direction to our national linguistic effort and to provide a clearinghouse for language problems.

Finally, it is necessary to secure at the grass roots a better understanding of the language problem in its relationship to our international communication needs. A beginning has already been made in mobilizing public sentiment. The United States National Commission for Unesco, cooperating with the Modern Language Association, has sponsored a series of "citizen consultations" in hundreds of American communities. Armed with the facts and figures presented at these meetings, parents, educators, and civic leaders have spearheaded drives to improve language facilities at the local level.

Happily there is today a growing realization that our antediluvian linguistics have no place in the atomic age. Now, while American education is being subjected to a searching scrutiny, is indeed an ideal time for us to mend our linguistic fences. It is even possible that many of the "life adjustment" courses that figure so prominently in school curriculums may be replaced by up-to-date offerings that acquaint young Americans not only with foreign tongues but also with the backgrounds of the peoples who speak them. If this materializes, there is a real likelihood that Americans may lose the distinction of being the world's most linguistically limited citizens. •

A RANCH-REARED city man, who had farmed out his teen-aged son to an old rancher friend, inquired about his son's progress. "Well," said the rancher, "he's a good worker, and already he speaks cow language. But he ain't learned yet to think like a cow."—John Harold in *Midland Schools.*

1960

An Experiment Using Team Learning

Adapting Instruction to Learning Needs in the Intermediate Grades

DONALD D. DURRELL

In Journal of Education

IN the spring of 1958, the United States Office of Education provided a research contract to Boston University for a study of differentiated instruction in self-contained classrooms. The town of Dedham, Massachusetts, was selected for the study. Here there were 47 intermediate-grade classrooms in eight elementary schools. The plan called for the measurement of achievements of pupils in these rooms in June 1958, to be followed by a program of differentiated instruction during 1958-59, with an evaluation of that program through measures in June 1959.

One of the first problems was the selection of services for emphasis in the program. Since these schools followed a schedule of separate school subjects, as do most elementary schools, it seemed desirable to center the program on the objectives of these subjects. However, the list of objectives in each subject seems limited only by the imagination of the person discussing the subject; individual differences also appear in infinite variety. Some selection was necessary for an orderly approach to the services-to-pupils program and for a systematic evaluation of outcomes.

Donald D. Durrell is a member of the faculty of the School of Education, Boston University, Mass. Reported from Journal of Education, *CXLII (December* 1959), 2-9, 72.

A practical solution appeared in the selection of the following services to students in the regular subjects of the elementary-school curriculum: adapting instruction to various levels of ability; providing for different progress rates in learning; giving special help at points of weakness in learning development; encouraging individual and group selfdirection and initiative; and enriching learning to make it significant and useful.

These were the services which served throughout the study as guides in preparation of teaching materials and in planning techniques of instruction.

In the development of the Dedham program those making the study found that team learning aided the differentiation and enrichment of instruction in many ways. Children prefer to work in pairs and small groups in contrast to

whole-class study or to working alone. This general knowledge had already been confirmed by a number of unpublished studies at Boston University and provided the authority needed for a policy to be used at Dedham. Therefore, whenever team learning promised to be equally or more effective than the practice it replaced, it was utilized. The following are some of the types of activities in which team learning was used:

TEAM-LEARNING ACTIVITIES

1. *Team progress techniques in skills instruction.* Knowledge of progress is always an effective motivation in skills learning. In the current study, teams of two or three pupils were permitted to progress in arithmetic and spelling as rapidly as they could demonstrate mastery. Team progress was also utilized in skills in other subjects in which suitable materials were available; applied phonics was taught through paired practice in analysis and classification of new words. Systematic review of social-studies concepts was provided in similar manner.

2. *Three- to five-man team discussions following whole-class presentation.* Discussion teams of three to five pupils, with one acting as a recorder, generally replaced whole-class discussion. Group conclusions were shared by oral reading of the group summary, with other groups adding information from their lists. Grouping in team discussions was heterogeneous; children of different levels of ability appear to make effective contributions to discussion when their backgrounds of information are adequate.

3. *Team use of study guides to improve learning effectiveness.* Questions before or during study aid in the intake of ideas; questions after reading can only measure the harvest. Study guides for use with teams of two or three pupils were commonly used in reading, history, and geography.

4. *Sections of the class.* When many pupils appeared to have similar instructional needs in any subject, they were grouped together for special help by the teacher. Controlled group progress, adjusting the pace of learning to the rate of mastery, appeared to serve slow learners well in some skills areas. New processes were illustrated and explained by the teacher, teams were then permitted to work through a series of lessons, then new units were introduced.

5. *Team or individual specialities in content subjects.* Depth and breadth in literature, history, geography, and science were provided by curriculum-related special reports. Calendars were prepared which aided advance assignments of special reports and displays on topics which came later in the courses of study in these subjects.

In this study use was also made of both individual and whole-class instruction for many classroom activities. Certain objectives seem to require the pupils to work alone; others appear to be well served

through whole-class presentation. The following will serve to illustrate:

1. *Individual learning activities.* These included independent reading and study for special reports; writing of papers and essays; taking tests for evaluation and analysis; certain types of skills practice; and keeping records of learning achievements and needs.

2. *Whole-class enrichment activities.* Some of the whole-class activities in which listening or viewing were predominant were the following: demonstrations, experiments, television or radio programs, motion pictures, slides, recordings, exhibits, displays, pupil reports, teacher explanation or direction. Activities involving group or whole-class participation were: impromptu dramatization, play reading, choral reading, singing, preparation of displays, class projects, games and contests.

In a three-day workshop prior to the opening of school those conducting the study in Dedham presented the methods of differentiated instruction to be used. Since team progress methods in arithmetic and spelling were the easiest to introduce and since experience had shown that they were most acceptable to teachers and pupils, the program was started immediately in these subjects. Guide sheets, record forms, and "ground rules" were worked out and exchanged among teachers. After these programs in spelling and arithmetic were running smoothly, differentiated instructional techniques in other subjects were developed and introduced. The research fellows taking part in the study were constantly available for demonstrations, consultation, and assistance in planning.

In this study, 35 of the teachers taught in both the experimental and control years. Twelve were in grade 4, nine in grade 5, and fourteen in grade 6. In these classrooms during the experimental year there were 803 pupils, distributed as follows: 280 in grade 4, 187 in grade 5, 336 in grade 6. The average intelligence quotient of this population was 107; the median class size was 25.

RESULTS OF PROGRAM

This program of differentiated instruction in Dedham intermediate grades produced marked improvement in many areas. There were also disappointments and unexpected findings. At the outset, the research team expected that all grades would show significant improvement in average achievement in all subjects. Rapid and slow learners were expected to show more improvement than average achievers, since it was assumed that uniform instruction fitted the latter group better. It seemed that team progress methods in arithmetic and spelling would result in marked improvement in those subjects. Less was expected from reading and language arts, for two reasons: first, it was difficult to adapt current instructional materials to

serve the multiplicity of skills in those subjects; second, there is much out-of-school learning in these areas, especially among bright children. It was hoped, but not confidently expected, that history, geography, science, and literature would respond well to the program of specialties, study guides, team discussion, and enrichment.

The findings show how these expectations were met. Analysis of the data show that average achievement improved significantly in grades 5 and 6, but the results were disappointing in grade 4. Rapid learners benefited by the program in grades 5 and 6, but did not respond in grade 4; achievements of slow learners improved in all grades; the middle group of children made significant improvements in grades 5 and 6, but showed slight losses in grade 4. Spelling improved significantly in all grades; arithmetic improved markedly in grades 5 and 6, but again grade 4 showed no gain. Reading improved significantly only in grade 6, as did language arts. There was no change in achievement in history, but geography and literature improved significantly; science achievement also was raised. Boys improved more than did girls in all subjects in grades 4 and 5, but grade 6 girls improved more than boys. There were no significant changes in social-personal measure, except in grade 5 where interest in school subjects improved. Parent satisfaction with school service remained essentially the same as in the previous year.

Long before the experimental year was over, it was evident that few teachers would willingly depart from the team learning program. On the basis of the acceptance of the program by the teachers and the results of the achievement test, the program in team learning was unanimously endorsed by the school committee.

Improvements in the program now are being pursued, especially in those subjects in which teachers rated the service to pupils as only "good" or "fair." New reference materials related to pupil specialties are being provided. Intensive remedial materials are being purchased and developed for slow learners in skills areas. Greater use of teacher resources is being utilized through a new program on Wednesdays in which teachers select a special field in science, art, music, literature, or physical education, and teach these to several classrooms. This is supplementary to the regular services in these fields. Any visitor in Dedham will find the team learning program well established. •

THE third-grade girls were unhappy about the special education group. "Teacher," they said, "the 'educated' children won't let us skip rope with them."—*T. Kathleen Seldomridge.*

1960

It Is Sick, Sick, Sick!

Our Student Council Is Over-Sponsored

ANONYMOUS

In School Activities

OUR student council is sick—very sick. Worse yet, most of its members do not realize what is the matter with it.

The reasons why our student council is sick are as follows:

1. The school principal, the council's sponsor, dominates the council completely. Though members are outwardly encouraged, they have little real voice. What they suggest are things they believe are in line with the principal's ideas, things that will please him. Therefore they give little or no thought to the main goal of the council—to do things for the school. Naturally, they have no initiative, no imagination, and no feeling of personal responsibility because no opportunities for such are offered.

2. Student council membership is too severely restricted. Candidates for membership in the council must have high marks and must have their petitions officially approved by their home-room teachers and the principal. The main stress is on scholarship, not on school service or citizenship.

In our school, as in all others I suppose, there are many boys and girls who have worthy ideals of service and organizing and promotional abilities who cannot qualify under the restricted membership requirements and so their ideals and talents go uncapitalized. Undoubtedly, if they were elected, they might make the job of "sponsoring" more difficult because of their ideals, talents, and initiative. In a word, while the principal wants an organization that is found in all high schools (in order to be "modern"), he wants one that brings no headaches, makes no mistakes, jumps when he calls, and stays under his thumb. And he has one—one that accomplishes nothing.

3. Election to the council is considered largely only a "high honor." Our council is really a sort of honorary society. Although it gives lip service to the ideal of school service, its program of activities is too small to be noticed.

4. We have no schedule or program for the term or year. Our council lives on a meeting-to-meeting diet. True, we have a few standing committees and an occasional temporary committee, but these are generally ineffective. They must clear their ideas and activities

For obvious reasons, the author, a student council member, requests anonymity. Reported from School Activities, *XXXI* (*January* 1960), 135–36.

with the principal first. If he approves, these are "reported" to the council.

5. Our meetings are of the "discussion" type. We talk, and talk, and talk—pretty freely too—but everyone knows that little in the way of organized plans and projects will come out of all this talk. Such an arrangement suits our sponsor. Beamingly, he speaks of the value of free and open discussion. But he doesn't seem to want this discussion to jell into definite projects and promotions.

6. Our meetings are too correct, parliamentarily speaking. We "go by the book" literally. Our busiest officer is our parliamentarian—a good one, too, incidentally. Here again, our sponsor always beams about how we are learning parliamentary procedure. But our council should be an active body in the service of the school, not a class in parliamentary law.

7. Our council has no financial responsibility. Here again, the sponsor decides on the ways in which money is to be raised, handles the money, and usually spends it without proper council authorization. He merely reports to us what he has done, and that's that. Our treasurer, like all the other officers except the secretary and the parliamentarian, is only a figurehead.

8. We have no publicity committee or corresponding activities. Of course, we do not need such a committee because we do so little. Or perhaps it might be better to say that we do need an exceptionally talented one in order to magnify the few things we do do.

NO RESPECT

Our school does not respect its student council. Why should it? What has the council done to deserve student respect? Even those members who know what the student council should be and should do can't respect our student council.

Some of us have attended council conferences (if they are held nearby) but our sponsor rarely goes with us; usually he sends a teacher "to look after" us. Naturally, after learning what the councils of other schools are doing we return home the most distressed young folks you can imagine. Once back, we never have an opportunity to report to our school what we did, saw, or heard at these conferences. Our attendance at them brings nothing to the school, only extreme dissatisfaction to ourselves for having attended.

Is there any hope for our student council? There is not, as long as it is over-sponsored as at present. Nor do I believe that the appointment of another sponsor would help matters as long as our principal holds to his present mistaken ideas of the place of a student council. So, after two years of "service," next term I am not going to run for reelection to the student council. Such membership would continue to be only a waste of my time. •

1960

A Few Research Highlights

The Gifted and Talented

LOUIS A. FLIEGLER and CHARLES E. BISH

In Review of Educational Research

IN the past few years a number of trends which represent important advances in the psycho-socio-educational aspects of providing for the gifted have emerged. These innovations are not all at the same level of activity, but all clearly point to new directions. A few of these trends are:

1. Greater concern with curriculum content based on the conceptual level of the gifted.
2. Expansion of the previously narrow interpretation of giftedness through efforts to measure special abilities and creativity.
3. Increased acceptability of some forms of acceleration as administrative procedures.
4. Development and expansion of college and university programs at both undergraduate and graduate levels for teachers specifically trained to work with the gifted, and special programs for the retraining of teachers in science and mathematics.
5. Sponsorship of comprehensive experimentation by the U. S. Office of Education and such organizations as the Ford and Carnegie Foundations, as well as intensification of research activities among local schools and doctoral students.
6. Recognition and determination to realize the underdeveloped human resource potential among members of the lower socioeconomic groups, Negroes, and women.
7. Direct action by state and national governments through distribution of funds for program development and scholarships.

Louis A. Fliegler is Associate Professor at Syracuse University, New York, and Charles E. Bish is Director of the Project on the Academically Talented Student, National Education Association, Washington, D.C. Reported from Review of Educational Research, *publication of the American Educational Research Association, XXIX (December* 1959), *Chapter II*, 408–16.

8. Concern with special programs at the local level which have a variety of approaches but substantially represent an interest in the intellectual as well as the social needs of the gifted.

In our society, need for people of creative ability is urgent. Even before the space age there was an undercurrent of dissatisfaction with the lack of talent resources. The present trend toward better identification and efficient guidance of the gifted shows a realization that human resources are necessary for growth in a complex, dynamic society. Several students of the problems of education for the gifted have addressed themselves to parents, pointing out the need for parental understanding and guidance. But contrary to the usual pattern of growth and development in spe-

cial education, no strong parent movement has yet crystallized to serve as an impetus for expanding educational opportunities. Perhaps the problem of the gifted is viewed specifically as one with the national concern for survival and reflects, in part, a growing need for social conservation of superior individuals.

NO ADEQUATE DEFINITION

Although studies being conducted in this area reflect an increased interest in the subject, an adequate definition of giftedness still seems lacking. The numerous interpretations and emphases on the component factors of superiority tend to confuse the problem. The committee of the National Society for the Study of Education has stated that "the talented or gifted child is one who shows consistently remarkable performance in any worthwhile line of endeavor." Others have referred to talent as "capacity for outstanding achievement." The term *academically talented,* which is gaining currency in educational circles, is defined by Conant as the top 15 to 20 percent of high-school students, "the group who should be going to college."

In our own review we came to accept this definition: The term *gifted* encompasses those children who possess a superior intellectual potential and functional ability to achieve academically in the top 15 to 20 percent of the school population; and/or talent of a high order in such special areas as mathematics, mechanics, science, expressive arts, creative writing, music, social leadership, and a unique creative ability to deal with their environment.

Inclusion of creative ability as a necessary factor in giftedness is made in an attempt to provide lines of delineation and to stress the process formation (creative ability) which elicits superior behavioral responses. The interrelationship of elements is evident, but as a reference point a division is essential for identification and measurement.

SIGNIFICANT STUDIES

Among the many significant studies of the last six years are those which have followed up the gifted group of Terman and Oden of 35 years ago. The conglomerate characteristics of the gifted, extensively illustrated and described by these authors, need still further definition and clarification if the potentially gifted are to be discovered.

Another line of inquiry has been concerned with the total manpower situation—the waste of potential resource power that is reflected in the vocational misplacement of capable individuals. Some of this research has gone into college trends and the supply and demand in specialized fields, and possible sources and means for meeting current needs. A group of researchers regards the Negro population as the single most underdeveloped human resource in the country and

advocates better schooling, new employment opportunities, realistic programs to lift economic levels, and the breaking down of residential segregation. The National Manpower Council has presented a definitive discussion of the role of women in our society and the need for a change in public policy to increase the effective use of talented women.

COLLEGE ATTENDANCE

A number of interesting studies have focused on the reasons for college attendance and failure of potentially able high-school students to attend college. As one example, high-school graduates in Minnesota were questioned in order to determine what factors influenced college entrance. It was found that 35 percent proposed to attend and that approximately the same number actually enrolled. It was learned also that ecological factors had a direct relationship to attendance and that economic status was important. Approximately 90 percent of the students whose fathers were in top-level occupations and 5 percent of the students whose fathers were factory laborers planned to attend. The follow-up revealed that youths from high socioeconomic environment carried out their plans to a greater extent than those from the low socioeconomic group. Cultural status was as significant as, if not more important than, economic status in determining whether a student planned to attend college. A substantial relationship existed between aptitude and college intentions. Sex differences also appeared to be important.

Other similar studies have been conducted, and it may be concluded from a review of these that the multidimensional factors which create a desire for a college education include complex psychological, environmental, and financial reasons. A community approach which integrates governmental, private, school, and parent resources could go far to develop and make useful the capabilities of the gifted.

This is not a simple problem. But students of the matter have made recommendations. One writer, working on a southern project which had to do with the college choices and problems of Negro high-school seniors, has made a recommendation which might be adopted by communities everywhere. He urged that local communities sponsor talent searches which should comprise seven major components: (*a*) identification of promising students through aptitudes, interests, and aspirations; (*b*) stimulation and motivation; (*c*) increased awareness on the part of counseling and teaching staffs on college admissions and scholarship policies; (*d*) individual and group guidance, parent guidance, and, where necessary, clinical services; (*e*) enrichment of curriculums; (*f*) involvement of teachers through workshops, in-service training, and staff conferences; and (*g*) financial aid. •

The NASSP Position

Essay Contests Are Educationally Undesirable

ABLETT H. FLURY

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

EVERY year hundreds of business firms and other organizations who want to sell a product or promote an idea turn to the schools in order to reach the pupils. A common procedure is to organize an essay contest. A flood of announcements of essay contests flows across each principal's desk during a school year. In many cases the principal is waited on by the local representative of a company or by a delegation from the local chapter of a national organization interested in promoting such a contest.

The value of the bait to entice participation varies from a nominal prize, plaque, or scroll to a four-year college scholarship. At times the teacher of the contest winner is included to receive some emolument. A full-size publicity spotlight focuses on the winner, the school, and, of course, on the organization promoting the project.

The growing lack of enthusiasm among educators for essay contests does not arise from antagonism to commercial enterprises or from objection to organizations promoting worthy causes. In fact, school administrators generally recognize that schools are most effective when they correlate satisfactorily with the life of the community. In many ways, schools draw much of their strength from people in industry, the press, religion, labor, the charitable and welfare organizations, the patriotic societies, and special interest groups—all of whom share in the support and control of the schools. Similarly, benefits flow back to the personnel of these groups when the schools are able to meet their responsibilities effectively.

Ablett H. Flury is Assistant Commissioner of Education, New Jersey State Department of Education, Trenton. *Reported from* The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XLIV* (*February* 1960), 35–41.

Educators generally object to essay contests because they almost always supplant effective instructional techniques. The organizations which promote essay contests nearly always stress their educational values. However, the experiences of teachers—and research into the learning process—show that essay contests are low in educational return when compared to the many other instructional techniques commonly used in the classroom. Some of the low returns arise from the following:

The forced competition of an essay contest does not grow from

a natural situation. Essay contests tend to overemphasize one form of expression—creative spirit thus is curtailed or channeled into a narrow pattern. Because of the prize, many a youngster compromises his own conviction to write in support of an idea in which he has little interest and less belief.

Plagiarism has been detected often enough to make it a known risk in essay contests. When detected, the result has been embarrassment and humiliation for many people. When undetected, it is hard to know what may have been the effect on the young people. Even when direct plagiarism is not involved, most essay contests provide no way of knowing whether the writing is the work of the author or whether it represents substantially the work of a parent or teacher who has coached the pupil.

In addition to these and many other objections, participation in essay contests generally interrupts the carefully planned program of the school and places an unwelcome operational burden on the teachers. Then, when the contest is over, winners are often required to miss several days of school in order that they may go to the state or national capital to collect their award and to provide background for the attendant publicity and drum beating of the sponsoring organization—another instance which may be effective in confusing a youngster's sense of values.

It is not surprising that some boards of education have simply ruled against school participation in any essay contest. Others have set a low limit on the number of essay contests in which the schools may participate. In some cases criterions have been designed to sort out acceptable from unacceptable contests. In some schools, participation by the school is limited to providing bulletin board space on which may be posted an announcement of the contest; pupils may participate, but all contact is directly with the sponsoring organization. When an effective policy has been adopted by a board it serves both to conserve teachers' time for their assigned duties and to protect pupils from the many undersirable features of the essay contests.

Until the injurious effects of essay contests on the schools are fully understood, it is likely that there will be sponsoring organizations who will continue to try to inject themselves into the schools through essay contests. The better informed organizations which really have the welfare of the pupils at heart will try to find means of assistance that are far more beneficial than the sponsoring of an essay contest.

HELPFUL SUGGESTIONS

There *are* many helpful ways of working with schools. Organizations would do well to consider some of those suggested below.

1. Consult with the local school authorities about some of the needs of the school and underwrite one

or two of them with financial aid, loan of equipment, or assignment of competent advisory personnel.

2. Make a grant for some kind of program aid—perhaps books for the library, films, pamphlets, brochures. These should not advertise commercial products. They should contribute to education rather than promotion. They should be appropriate for the grade level in which they are to be used.

3. Assist in the preparation of teaching materials in which there is little or no advertising. These, too, should contribute to education rather than to the promotion of a particular project. If an idea is the objective, it should be developed around fact rather than through propaganda.

4. Provide consultants and aides for career day.

5. Establish workshops which teachers or pupils or both may attend to learn about the working of industry, banking, or labor.

To cite a state-wide example of a cooperative activity, the State Safety Council in one state holds a series of safety conferences for junior- and senior-high-school students on Saturdays. The program topics are developed in consultation with school authorities. Some programs are devoted to traffic safety, others consider also the safety aspects of home, recreation, shop, and other areas of activity. This council also provides during the school year monthly outlines for secondary and elementary lessons to be used as teaching guides.

Another example is found in a county where manufacturers of explosives for commercial use produced educational posters warning against careless handling of explosives. For youngsters who were interested in rockets, a cooperative technical-educational advisory committee of teachers and scientists from industry was formed to work with these youngsters.

There are many other ways in which organizations can assist the schools and still provide a reasonable amount of promotion of the ideas which they support. The essay contest is no longer one that receives a warm welcome in the schools. And it is hoped that when organizations become acquainted with the reasons for reluctance on the part of school authorities to accept them—when objections have been discussed frankly—such organizations will find ways to work with the schools in ways more profitable for the achievement of goals that are mutually acceptable. •

A Prize-Winning Letter?

A NEW JERSEY lady who donated a cake to the school-board members for a postmeeting snack was a bit confused by the board's thank-you letter. It thanked her for her cooperative spirit "of which your cake was concrete evidence."—From *National Parent-Teacher.*

Supplementing the Library Collection

Paperbacks and Hardbacks

FAYE M. KLINGMEYER

In The Clearing House

EVERY school librarian knows the frustrations engendered by mass requests for specific titles as a result of interest stimulated by teachers, movies, or other means. A library can never afford to buy sufficient copies to satisfy such demands. Paperback books are a boon in such circumstances—not for circulating, because they do not hold up well enough for that, but for sale.

Few students can afford to buy hardbooks at today's prices, but they can and do afford paperbacks. They enjoy building up their own libraries, are proud of them, and best of all, read them. The psychology of ownership seems to promote reading. In the writer's library, where paperbacks now have been sold for two years, students frequently ask if a specific title is in paperback form either because they have read the hardback and want to own the book or because they have heard the book is good and don't want to wait for a library hardback.

Hundreds of titles now are available in the classics and there are hundreds more in modern fiction and nonfiction. Of course the school librarian must exercise the same critical judgment in her choice of paperbacks for selling as she does hardbacks for circulation. What the librarian is doing when she sells paperbacks is what she is hired to do: She is putting good literature into the hands of her patrons on demand.

Faye M. Klingmeyer is Head Librarian at North Miami Senior High School, Florida. *Reported from* The Clearing House, *XXXIV* (*March* 1960), 415–16.

Selling paperbacks takes time, but time also is saved. It is not necessary to keep a strict inventory or to library-process these books; they don't require time to charge and discharge to the patron; there are no overdues to worry about; and they don't need to be reshelved.

Any librarian wishing to handle paperbacks should clear with her board of education or her library board. Our own board has encouraged the enterprise, which began when the science department made up a list of science titles for our purchase and recommended that the teachers encourage students to purchase them through the library. No sales tax is charged because we are tax exempt, but we are not permitted to pass on any discount to the students for then we would be in competition with local stores. Unsold copies may be returned.

The teachers have shown astonishing enthusiasm. They buy many titles for their own libraries and find many uses for them in their classes. Honors classes are given a list of paperbacks they are requested to buy. Although purchase isn't mandatory and although two or more students may share copies, parents are told honors students may have to purchase as much as $10 worth of paperbacks as intellectual stimulation.

Some teachers use paperbacks for their slow, average, and accelerated classes. For instance, several eleventh-grade teachers (American literature) used *Moby Dick* or *Gone with the Wind* for accelerated classes, *Ox-Bow Incident* or *Red Badge of Courage* or *House of Seven Gables* for average classes, and *Huckleberry Finn* or *Tom Sawyer* in slow ones.

When teaching grammar, many teachers assign *Six Minutes a Day to Perfect Spelling, Word Power Made Easy, Short Cuts to Effective English,* or 30 *Days to a More Powerful Vocabulary.* Although not assigned, hundreds of copies of *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* are sold.

Foreign language teachers encourage purchase of the dictionary available in the language they teach; each art student receives as part of his fee money a copy of *Enjoying Modern Art,* which serves as a text. Social studies teachers use regularly *Teacher in America, Story of Mankind, The Greek Way, The U. N.,* and *Story of Philosophy,* among others. The best seller in science is Conant's *On Understanding Science.*

The librarian should not presume that students will buy only because of teacher assignment. They buy because of intellectual interest and for entertainment. Just as in hardbacks, the librarian learns to cater to many kinds of taste. Students buy best sellers when the paperbacks are published promptly and they buy books when influenced by the movie or simply because of the fame of a classic.

Our library sold 5,000 paperbacks during the school year 1958-1959, and in the first three weeks of this school year teachers had the school purchase 1,200 for resale. One enthusiastic teacher has stated that paperbacks are the greatest stimulation to reading she has ever observed.

Availability may be a part of the reason. In any event this stimulation is worth trying. •

READING books in one's youth is like looking at the moon through a crevice; reading books in middle age is like looking at the moon in one's courtyard; and reading books in old age is like looking at the moon on an open terrace. This is because the depth of benefits of reading varies in proportion to the depth of one's own experiences.—*Chang Ch'ao.*

1960

Dramatic History and Future Trends

Junior College Growth

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

In Junior College Journal

THERE has been some tendency in this country to look on increasing enrolments in colleges and universities as a kind of national calamity, second only to the not dissimilar problem of what to do with all of our wheat and corn and butter and eggs. Our reason tells us that we do have a problem here. But thoughtful persons know that there is reason to be grateful that there *are* so many young people and adults who are inclined to yield themselves in growing thousands to the discipline and insights of higher education.

The time has come when the citizens of America must have more than an academic interest in extending opportunities for higher education. This fact has been amply demonstrated in the fields of science and technology. It is equally true in man's social relations. But unfortunately there is a greater lag here in our comprehension of need.

A member of the President's Cabinet recently stated that the most serious problem we face in this country over the next 25 years is the need for trained manpower. He affirmed that we need urgently to develop all of our human resources and that education has this basic responsibility. In a similar vein former Harvard President James Bryant Conant is quoted in *Time* magazine as saying, "A modern industrial nation needs more than a few brains; it has to uplift talent at every level. It cannot afford technological unemployables—spiritually, politically, or economically."

There is no questioning the fact that the perpetuation of our society requires people of learning, but sometimes we forget a corollary imperative: There is also the American dream of self-fulfillment—the liberation of the human mind because that in and of itself is good and ought to happen. As this ideal agitates within the context of our generation and the one to come, the result will surely be dramatic developments in the field of education. And no picture of American education today is complete without inclusion of the junior college.

Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., is Executive Director of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Reported from Junior College Journal, *XXX (February* 1960), 351–60.

Growth in the numbers of junior colleges in the United States and in students enrolled continues to be dramatic. Public or tax-supported junior colleges now number 400, while privately controlled or church-related institutions total 277. In 1915-16 there were only 74 of both types. In that year there was a total of 2,363 students enrolled, while in 1958-59 the number of students had grown to 905,062. The coeducational junior college is the prevailing type with a total of 552 institutions. There are 75 junior colleges for women and 50 for men.

Yet, despite this almost spectacular growth, there is a real likelihood that in making projections of student enrolments over the next 10 years educators have been too conservative and have not given sufficient attention to two extremely important factors: the motivating influence of proximity of an institution of higher education, and the effect of a variety of college programs to match a variety of student interests and aptitudes.

An example of the importance of proximity is the case of Chipola Junior College in Jackson County, Florida. At the time the junior college was established in 1947 only 7 percent of the high-school graduates in that county enrolled in college. In 1959, 12 years later, 52 percent of the high-school graduates began college careers. About 7 percent attended institutions outside the county. The rest enrolled at Chipola Junior College. It is quite clear that a high percentage would not have begun college work at all if it had not been for the existence of the junior college. This story is being repeated throughout the country where similar opportunities are available.

APPROPRIATE COURSES

The impact of appropriate courses being available has been demonstrated recently at Bakersfield College, California. In September 1957, 23 students were admitted to the new two-year program in nursing at the institution. Twenty-one of the students were graduated from the college with the Associate in Arts degree in June 1959. Their age range was 17-plus to 46; 15 of them were married, and most of these had children. One student had three grandchildren. These graduates took state board examinations for licensure as registered nurses in California during the summer. The entire class passed. Seventeen of these registered nurses are currently employed in the Bakersfield area. Undoubtedly many of the persons included in this class would not have entered the nursing field if the associate degree program had not been available in the local community.

Junior colleges established throughout this country in increasing numbers and placed within commuting distance of the majority of residents in many of the states will be responsible for greatly increasing the number of peo-

ple who will experience some kind of post-secondary instruction. Moreover, there will be an increasing number of students who, having taken two years of post-secondary work, will have both inclination and ability to continue their education in the upper division of four-year colleges and universities.

In many states today junior colleges are well recognized and their development is orderly and according to plan. Among these states are Florida, New York, and California. Last year, in those 26 counties of Florida in which the services of public junior colleges were available, 75 percent of the students enrolling in college for the first time chose the junior college. Florida has authorized four additional areas for junior colleges.

In New York State the first locally sponsored community junior college was established in 1950. There were 257 full-time students. Nine years later there were 13,000 full-time students. During this same period a total of $58,000,000 of construction had been completed or was under contract. Operating budgets for next year will probably be around $12,000,000. There are now 16 junior colleges under the State University of New York and 25 privately supported institutions. The figures given here for construction and operation apply only to those institutions under the State University.

In the college year 1958-59, California public junior colleges enrolled 73.3 percent of all full-time students enrolled in public higher education below the junior year. This past year there were 92,000 full-time students in the junior colleges. By 1970, it is estimated that there will be 220,000.

Indeed, many junior colleges have reached a point where they can no longer be described as small institutions. While there is no general agreement about the optimum size of a junior college, a question can be raised about the use of terms which characterize junior colleges as small institutions by definition. One California county study has suggested the setting of a limit of 5,500 students, while plans written in other states advise a lower figure.

In a number of states the establishment of junior-college facilities is a subject of current and active consideration. These include Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and Ohio. •

A RECENT survey conducted by Elmo Roper and Associates for the Ford Foundation revealed that 60 percent of the parents expecting to send a child to college had no savings plan specifically for this purpose. For the 40 percent who did have such a plan, the median amount saved last year was only $150.

Haunting Questions

A Critical Reading Laboratory

ELLEN LAMAR THOMAS

In The Reading Teacher

WORDS! Words! Words! From the television screen, from newspapers, from books, from billboards, from flaring advertising spreads, stimulus after stimulus makes its impression on the minds of our students—shaping what they think and molding what they do. The young people we teach today belong to the most highly propagandized generation in the history of the world.

Clear, penetrating thinking was never so vital as it is in these times. Is it not ironical that in an age of bewildering and complex problems the forces that inform us should also confuse our thinking? Does this not strengthen our conviction that training in critical reading is one of the most effective counterforces, one of the compelling needs of the present, and one of the hopes of the future?

To meet this urgent responsibility to our students, we have established in our high-school reading center our own critical reading laboratory. It is similar in appearance to commercially-prepared reading laboratories. In format it is an attractive box with colorful and inviting contents. Pockets of bright-colored construction paper on a white drawing-paper background house our clipping collections. The clippings are contributed from our own reading. If we find a false analogy, a conclusion that lacks proof, a passage in which name-calling runs riot, a statement wrenched from its context, into the file it goes. Our practice materials thus are live, thought-provoking, and as timely as today.

Ellen Lamar Thomas is a teacher at St. Petersburg High School, Florida. Reported from The Reading Teacher, *XIII* (*February* 1960), 201–205.

Explanations of procedures of sound thinking (removed from books and workbooks and bound in folders or slipped into plastic envelopes) head specific sections. In compiling materials for the laboratory I have drawn heavily on Richard D. Altick's *Preface to Critical Reading* for introductory explanations of techniques of sound thinking and for exercises close to the interests of students.

Divisions of the laboratory are captioned with questions—questions which, it is hoped, will haunt the minds of students throughout a lifetime of reading. Here are some examples:

Is There a Hidden Motive? Here is the introduction to a section of the laboratory intended to develop

awareness of the author's purpose. And it is suggested to the student that he ask himself such questions as these: "Does this author wish to sway you for or against some nation, race, or religion?" "Does he want your support in behalf of some policy or practice which is to his advantage?" "Will your uncritical acceptance of his point of view result in his financial gain?"

Who Would Want You to Believe This? This division alerts students as they read to begin to show immune reactions to the influence of propaganda.

Does This Writer Speak with Authority? Students accustomed to accepting as sacrosanct anything that appears in print will become more discerning when they realize that a great part of what they read comes from persons with no special right to make pronouncements on the subject at hand. With "says who?" uppermost in mind, classes go about the business of evaluating authorities. They use references, they consult specialists, and they investigate the bias of political commentators whose columns appear in their local newspapers. They try to differentiate between sensation-mongers and writers with a sense of social responsibility, and they report their appraisals.

LOGIC TECHNIQUES

Has the Writer Proved His Point? In this section of the laboratory students are introduced to the techniques of deductive and inductive logic. "What is wrong with this thinking?" becomes the watchword as classes test their skill in detecting the weak link in a chain of reasoning. With searching questions they analyze examples of the deductive process: Are the premises valid? Is this a case in point? Does the conclusion necessarily follow? Are the terms correctly and consistently defined?

As we turn to the techniques of inductive reasoning, attention is directed to these questions: Are terms correctly and consistently defined? Is there enough evidence to justify the conclusion? Is the evidence sound? If causation is involved, is there a possibility of more than one cause or of a different cause?

Students cull examples from their own reading and ask classmates to search out the fallacy in such statements as: "Hydrogen bomb tests took place in July. Tornadoes and hurricanes followed. Such tests are upsetting the weather." Or, "We are constantly seeing newspaper reports of teen-age thefts and vandalism. Young people are utterly lawless."

What Kind of Evidence Would You Require? As we examine the inductive process, students consider the type of evidence they would require to be convinced that such statements as the following are true: "Cigarettes are a major cause of lung cancer." "Because of television, high-school students spend less time than they used to in reading for pleasure."

What Is the Influence of Adver-

tising? When the critical reading of advertising is introduced, class groups consider the important contribution of advertising and the scundness of much of that advertising. Then we reflect on the question: But how are we being molded by certain types of advertising—toward maturity or immaturity? "Your friends will envy you . . ." "Be the first in your social set to own one." "The mark of the man of distinction." "Luxurious . . ." "Exclusive . . ."

How are these persuasive words shaping our psychological growth? Are we maturing as human beings if we accept the advertisers' criterions for prestige and success with which we are assailed almost every waking hour? Class groups read or hear about in comments of the teacher, material from Harry Overstreet's *The Mature Mind.* An excerpt, "What We Read, See, and Hear in the Ads," bound in a manila folder, prefaces the division of the laboratory on advertising.

The students soon placard the classroom with ads tapping our less mature emotions—some alluring with bright beckonings toward a life filled with ease and free from worries; some appealing to such social fears as the fear of being different or left out, of being criticized by others, of not making a distinctive appearance; some relating to such social desires as seeking status through the ownership of "things" or wishing to see ourselves "not as maturely equal with others, but as the focus of attention and envy."

As classes compare the bright promises in advertisements with the unbiased appraisals in such magazines as *Consumer Reports,* they learn that the product most attractively advertised is not always the best bargain. Clippings reporting the objective laboratory findings are pasted on the advertisements, often in revealing contrast.

But we shall profit little if we leave our students with questions substituted for convictions. The maturing student-reader should realize that "plenty of truth remains in the world—there is no dearth of things for him to believe or to believe in." Believing nothing is as little to be desired as believing everything. Across more than 300 years, Francis Bacon's counsel is still timely today: "Read not to contradict and refute; nor to believe and take for granted . . . ; but to weigh and consider."

The world's destiny is being shaped by words. What more challenging responsibility is ours than training students who can weigh them? •

TELL a man something is bad, and he's not at all sure he wants to give it up. Describe it as stupid, and he knows it's the better part of caution to listen.—*David Seabury.*

Should It Be Extended to the Upper Grades?

Manuscript Writing after 60 Years

GERTRUDE HILDRETH

In Elementary English

THE invention of the typewriter has not made handwriting obsolete. To the young child, the ability to use pen or pencil successfully is still an attractive goal. Now the subject of handwriting—formerly called penmanship—has once more attracted the attention of teachers and the public in general.

There can be no mention of the subject of handwriting without reference at once to print script, known also as manuscript writing. Sixty years now have passed since Miss M. M. Bridges, an English educator, published her copybook, *A New Handwriting*, reviving the beautiful handwriting of the Elizabethan era derived from the fifteenth century italic style known as the "chancery" hand. The movement Miss Bridges started received scant attention at first. But by 1913 the question of introducing manuscript writing into the schools was fully discussed at the London County Council Teachers' Conference.

Toward the middle of 1914 an alphabet for print script with the simplest possible style of lettering, worked out by Miss S. A. Golds, appeared and later Dr. C. W. Kimmins, who was chief inspector of the London County Council, made the first extensive report of research findings concerning print-script writing. By the early twenties English education authorities felt that the new movement had passed the experimental stage and that this new style of writing should become an established feature of the school curriculum. At that time the new print style was expected to supplant cursive writing altogether instead of serving merely as a prelude to the use of cursive style writing.

Gertrude Hildreth is Professor of Education at Brooklyn College, New York. Reported from Elementary English, *XXXVII (January* 1960), 3–13.

Manuscript style writing was brought to New York City by Marjorie Wise in 1921, and it was simultaneously introduced in private elementary schools in Boston. During the twenties, the new style writing was confined largely to the smaller private and experimental or laboratory school systems with experimental programs such as Winnetka, Illinois, and Bronxville, New York.

During the thirties the trend steadily increased with more and more public-school systems showing interest in the movement and introducing the new style to beginners. From 1940 onward the

trend was even more rapid so that by 1950 the teaching of script in the primary grades of public schools had become practically universal in American schools. Today in many countries around the world where the Roman alphabet is used, beginners are taught manuscript style writing.

The introduction of print script in the primary grades coincided with the new views concerning the place of writing in the school curriculum and methods of teaching the skill. Formerly, handwriting was taught as a formal isolated drill subject and treated as a mechanical skill. First came practice in separate strokes, then whole letters, and finally words. The children wrote laboriously in their copy books, slavishly copying line after line. A child who was asked what he had written would reply, "I don't know. I haven't learned to read it yet." Not until the children had reached third grade or beyond were they able to use handwriting for written expression.

The significant difference now that print script has come into use is this: Teachers of young children regard writing as a functional tool from the beginning—not as preparation for composition work two or three years later. The children learn to write while actually writing something to be read. Beginners are saved the confusion of having to become familiar with two styles of graphic language, machine printed type-face and conventional longhand. It is possible to teach reading and handwriting together and, in turn, link these skills to the child's natural oral expression. The children's handwriting skills, by the time they have reached the third grade, is infinitely superior to results gained with cursive style writing. It is not only more legible and fluent, but more pleasing in appearance. With this style of writing, children begin composition work earlier and become more independent in written expression.

NO ALTERNATIVE?

Today, in American schools, manuscript writing is the form used almost without exception in the initial teaching of handwriting, with the change to cursive style before the beginning of the fourth grade. Most teachers today assume that there is no alternative to changing over—difficult as that period may be. As one supervisor expressed it, "Prejudice against continuation of manuscript in the upper grades is so deeply rooted that no change in attitude can possibly come about in our generation."

And there are some who believe that if manuscript writing cannot be continued with the expectation of permanent use it is best never to start it.

Nevertheless, there are competent educators who favor continuation of manuscript writing in the upper grades. They have pointed out that it has much the same value for advancing pupils in all phases of literacy as in the lower grades and that manuscript style writing

is a practical, serviceable hand for all mature writing needs. They have, indeed, found acceptable and persuasive answers to most of the problems and objections—and to prejudice. Their views have found acceptance in practice in a number of reputable school systems. In Brookline, Massachusetts, for example, manuscript writing has been retained throughout the upper grades.

MANUSCRIPT IN UPPER GRADES

But when schools permit the children to "keep it," this is not the whole answer. Children above the third grade need planned practice and drill until they show command of fluent handwriting. If individual children appear to be writing more slowly than need be, teachers should assist them in acquiring a slight slant, attaining a more comfortable writing posture, practicing for lighter pressure, more arm movement.

At all stages—primary, intermediate, and in the higher grades—teachers should never refer to manuscript writing as "printing" in contrast to "real writing," both because this is misleading and because it prevents wider acceptance of print-style handwriting. It should go without saying that upper-grade teachers who wish to instruct children in manuscript writing should familiarize themselves with this style and learn to do it well.

They need also to recognize the fact that they must meet a certain amount of prejudice from parents who have considered the manuscript style as babyish. The proper answer to the question, "When are the children going to learn to write?" is, "They are learning to write, but it's new style, like your new model car or camera." In Bronxville, parents of children in the junior-high school were asked to support the school in continuing manuscript-style writing in the upper grades and to show pride in their children's accomplishment. However, they were invited to request a changeover if they wished to do so.

There is a continuing need for research in elementary-school handwriting. This is a day of urgency in teaching literacy not only in America but around the world, and the whole area of handwriting instruction needs to be thoroughly explored. There is a need of controlled studies in which comparable groups of pupils are taught different handwriting styles. American schools have never developed norms for rate and quality of manuscript writing throughout the elementary grades comparable to those reported by Kimmins or the cursive script norms established years ago by Ayres, Starch, Thorndike, and others. An educational campaign among the parents and general public would be necessary to conduct new experiments with true impartiality. The full cooperation of the handwriting experts (penmanship specialists) and the copybook publishers would also be required. •

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

The White House Conference.—Out of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth emerged the National Committee for Children and Youth.

The new committee was created to follow up the recommendations of the White House Conference. This will be no easy task. The 7,500 delegates to the Conference left no less than 1,630 recommendations. To arrive at these, the delegates spent six days (March 27-April 2) listening to 190 major speeches of experts and taking part in discussions generated by 210 workshops.

Ruth Stout, a delegate from Kansas, was given the task of summing up these recommendations at the final session. She said that the scope of the recommendations "was too vast for the mind to grasp." But she assured the delegates that all of them had tried to carry out the purpose of the conference—which was "to help each child fulfill the promise that is in him."

Mrs. Rollin Brown, the national chairman of the event, also tried to sum up the precedings before the delegates went home. She contented herself, however, with the statement that "this was an interdisciplinary conference and that no single point of view dominated the discussions."

The interdisciplinary approach was evident throughout the proceedings. Churchmen criticized American values and charged that our society is addicted to things which downgrade the person. Parent-group representatives attacked TV programs for children as inane and vicious. Librarians deplored the fact that youngsters don't read enough, partly because thousands of communities lack public library services. Recreation leaders complained of lack of playgrounds, state and national parks. Family-life experts insisted the home must remain the major stabilizing force in the lives of young people. Child-care workers pointed out that young mothers have little experience in child care and must often turn to "sensationally written" magazine articles for help. Urban planners said we must remake our cities into suitable places for children to live in. And social workers said we need more social workers.

Educators, too, had their say. They spoke out for creative teaching as contrasted with "assimilation of fact." They called for richer curriculums and better programs for the gifted, slow learners, and underachievers. If there was one lesson for educators at the Conference it was this: that a great host of agencies, disciplines, organizations, forces, and institutions in America are concerned about the child—his health, morals, values, and the social climate in which he

is growing up. But only the school and the educator are concerned about his schooling. One result of the Conference, therefore, may be to strengthen the growing tendency of educators to de-emphasize the "social-service" function of schools and strengthen their academic and intellectual objectives.

Defense and Criticism.—Even while the White House Conference was still in session its apologists rose to defend it and its critics to decry it. When the Conference ended, and the evaluations began in earnest, both defense and criticism rose in volume. The question was, "What has the Conference achieved?"

The Washington Post editorialized that one of the Conference results was to state afresh the hopes and aspirations for children during the next 10 years. Spokesmen for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (hosts to the Conference) said it may take 5 to 10 years before anyone knows what the meeting achieved.

But William G. Carr, NEA executive secretary, was dubious that any of the five previous "decennial spectaculars" (the first White House Conference was held in 1909 and there has been one every 10 years since) had accomplished much of importance, and he expected little from the latest one. Why? Because of its enormous scope. Said he: "The conferences have become so comprehensive that nothing is excluded that has any relevance to the well-being of children. The 1940 conference theme dealt with children in a democracy. The 1950 conference gave up trying to find a theme and called itself the Mid-Century Conference. The conference in which we are now engaged, having found no terse, specific theme, is called merely the Golden Anniversary Conference. We may assume that the 1970 conference will deal with children in a changing solar system or changing universe."

Troubling Dr. Carr was the fact that the Conference was not concentrating on what he (and the NEA) believed to be the number one need of American children, namely, a heavy dose of federal dollars for the support of education. In time, however, the conference did endorse a resolution urging federal aid.

But this endorsement, not a very strong one, was nearly lost in the stream of the 1,600 other recommendations. By far the largest proportion of these stressed equality of opportunity for children and an end to all types of discrimination. Next in number were resolutions seeking improvement in health, schooling, welfare, legal, and protection services for children.

And one resolution in the lot all but bore out a prediction Dr. Carr had ventured in his speech criticizing the meeting. The delegates approved a recommendation that the 1970 White House meeting shall be considered a preliminary

one for a global conference on children to be called by the United Nations.

More Money than Requested.— If Rep. Fogarty is the voice of Congress (and he is when it comes to federal appropriations for educational activities), then Congress is eager to spend more money for education than the Eisenhower administration believes necessary.

Mr. Fogarty, Democrat from Rhode Island, has been having difficulty persuading Republican-dominated federal educators that they should ask for more money than the White House and the Bureau of Budget allows them.

Take the case of federal aid to school districts affected by government activity. For some time now, Mr. Eisenhower has wanted to whittle down the sums going to the 4,000 school districts which have been getting U. S. dollars since 1950. For 1961, the President and his budget men decided to cut payments for maintenance and operation and the grants for school construction. Mr. Fogarty and his Committee said no. In sum, where the Eisenhower budget had asked for a total of only $171,085,000 for federally-impacted areas, the Fogarty committee decided to give them $250,610,000.

Mr. Fogarty exhibited the same generous tendency toward other U. S. Office of Education budget items.

When he looked at the 1961 figure for institutes for counseling personnel (another NDEA activity), Mr. Fogarty became impatient. Why did you ask for only $6,500,000 when you might have asked for the fully-authorized figure of $7,500,000? he asked U. S. Commissioner of Education Derthick. Dr. Derthick admitted that he had, in fact, asked for the larger sum, but that the Budget Bureau had reduced this.

Mr. Fogarty: "Then why do you take it so calmly? I thought you had told Congress counseling was important. What will happen if Congress decides to give you more money? Couldn't you do a better job if you had a few more dollars?"

The same line of questioning followed the presentation of nearly every budget item dealing with defense education activities. Since Dr. Derthick is a loyal member of the team, he must follow the policy set by the President. He said:

"As we go down the line in the National Defense Education Act, we feel sincerely we are getting what we need to do the job . . . We have all the money we can use."

Mr. Fogarty wasn't convinced and he made clear that next year, if he's still chairman of the all-powerful House Appropriations Committee, he'd like to get budget requests from the U. S. Office of Education which are "progressive toward the goals the nation has set for itself" and which are not tampered with by the "economy-minded men in the Bureau of the Budget."

Goals for the Next Decade.—The nation should set for itself two major educational goals for the coming decade—to have a competent teacher in each classroom and to supply enough classrooms for all children.

This is the gist of a "national goals paper" circulated by the U. S. Office of Education among educators and educational organizations. The intent of the paper is to stimulate discussion on national staffing and construction objectives. The Office of Education is inviting comments and reactions to its proposals.

While the goals are for the next decade, they are "phased" into periods of five years.

The school staffing goals are to increase teacher salaries by 1964 so that they will be 50 percent higher in purchasing power than they were in 1959. To preserve this level during the remainder of the decade, the goal calls for a 3 percent annual increase, from 1964 to 1969. Says the document: "The national cost of this achievement—without regard to the respective sources of funds to be used—would be a total of $120.5 billion for the 10-year period, the annual average being $12.1 billion, and the largest amount in any one year (1968-69) being $15 billion."

In addition, the goal calls for spending one billion dollars over the 10-year period to improve teacher selection, preparation, and in-service education.

As for the second major goal—the paper calls for construction of 416,300 classrooms during the first half of the decade, and 191,500 during the second half. The total capital outlay for these 607,800 classrooms would be $25.5 billion in dollars of 1959 purchasing power.

The document does not suggest any new sources of money to finance these objectives. That is why the NEA issued a statement charging that the goals would be without "practical effect" unless there is vigorous federal action. Nevertheless, a conference of 100 men and women representing 60 national groups said the goals might be too modest rather than too extravagant.

Leaving such practical matters for others to take up, the authors of the document were content to sum up their proposals in these words:

"The cost of adopting these steps will be very great if viewed from the existing frame of reference of many citizens, perhaps of the majority. It is bluntly submitted, however, that to call such drastic measures unrealistic on political and economic grounds is itself an act of unrealism; with our survival at stake, as amply attested by our foremost statesmen and by other leaders in every pertinent field of endeavor, the issue of what is realistic must be determined with reference to our survival first, according to the respective factors in survival—military, political, economic, educational, and others." •

Educational News

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Burlington, Ia.: **Ralph A. Austermiller,** formerly director of curriculum and instruction, Waterloo, Ia., has been named superintendent and president of Burlington College.

Erie, Pa.: **John M. Hickey** has resigned to become executive assistant to the state superintendent of public instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

Compton, Calif.: **Phil H. Putnam,** director of Ventura, Calif., Junior College, has been appointed superintendent and president of Compton College.

Evansville, Ind.: **Ralph J. Becker** has resigned to become regional representative of the U. S. Office of Education in Kansas City, Mo.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

University of Chicago, Ill.: **Lawrence A. Kimpton,** chancellor since 1951, has announced his resignation, effective when a successor is named.

University of California, Los Angeles: **Franklin D. Murphy,** chancellor of the University of Kansas, Lawrence, has been appointed chancellor, succeeding **Vern O. Knudsen** on his retirement in July.

Chatham College, Pittsburgh, Pa.: **Paul R. Anderson** has announced his resignation to become vice-president for academic affairs, Temple University, on Aug. 1.

Amherst College, Mass.: **Calvin H. Plimpton,** assistant dean, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University, will succeed **Charles W. Cole** on his retirement in July.

Seton Hall University, South Orange, N. J.: **Msgr. John J. Dougherty,** Immaculate Conception Seminary, Darlington, N. J., has been named president.

University of Minnesota, Minneapolis: **O. Meredith Wilson,** president of the University of Oregon, Eugene, will succeed **J. L. Morrill** on his retirement in July.

University of Alaska, College: **William Ransom Wood,** vice-president at the University of Nevada, has been appointed president.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Mississippi, University: **Forrest W. Murphy** has announced his retirement in July as dean of the school of education. He will continue as professor of education.

Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick: **Wallace B. Appelson,** formerly assistant professor of education, is now state coordinator of terminal programs in the New Jersey State Department of Education, Trenton.

Sam Huston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.: **Bradley B. Hogue, Jr.,** formerly at North Texas State College, Denton, is now assistant professor of education.

Glassboro State College, N. J.: **Willie Kate Baldwin,** formerly of South Carolina, has been named professor of education.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Martin C. Tate, Phoenix, Ariz., has been named president-elect of the NEA Department of Elementary School Principals.

New members of the Educational Policies Commission recently announced by the NEA and the AASA are: **Max Lerner,** professor of American civilization, Brandeis University, Waltham, Mass.; **O. Meredith Wilson,** president, University of Oregon, Eugene, who will become president of the University of Minnesota in July; and

Milson C. Raver, executive secretary, Maryland State Teachers Association, Baltimore. Retiring from the Commission this year are: **James B. Conant,** president emeritus, Harvard University; **Arthur F. Corey,** executive secretary, California Teachers Association; and **Ruth E. Eckert,** University of Minnesota.

Stephen A. Romine, dean of the college of education, University of Colorado, Boulder, has been elected president of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

RECENT DEATHS:

John L. Bracken, president of the AASA, 1949-50, and superintendent at Clayton, Mo., 1923-1956, at the age of 68.

N. L. Engelhardt, Sr., senior partner in Engelhardt, Engelhardt, Leggett, and Cornell, educational consultants in New York City, at the age of 77. Dr. Engelhardt, a member of the faculty at Teachers College, Columbia University, from 1916 to 1942, was formerly associate superintendent of schools in New York City and was a former president of the AASA.

John Wesley Carr, president emeritus of State Teachers College, now Murray State College, Murray, Ky., at the age of 100. Dr. Carr was also a former president of the Department of Superintendence, NEA, the organization preceding the American Association of School Administrators.

Clarence M. Dannelly, former president of Kentucky Wesleyan College, Owensboro, and retired superintendent at Montgomery, Ala., at the age of 70.

Fire Safety

TODAY 4.5 million more children are attending schools that are significantly safer from fire than they were a year ago, according to a recent progress report made by the National Fire Protection Association.

This means, the Association states, that more than 17 million public-school children are now being taught under reasonably fire-safe conditions. However, it adds, approximately 18 million are still exposed to fire hazards.

The survey indicated that 68 percent of all U. S. communities made some attempt to improve fire-safety conditions in school buildings during the past year by making some physical changes in the school structures. Almost all communities now have more frequent and better exit drills, better housekeeping habits, and more frequent and intensive school-building inspections.

New Ford Grants

NEW teacher-education programs at eight colleges will be initiated by grants totaling $2,761,250 announced in April by the Ford Foundation.

The new group of grants is the third in a series begun a year ago to help advance what the Foundation terms a national "breakthrough" in the education of elementary- and secondary-school teachers. The program now includes 27 colleges and universities that have received a total of $18.2 million.

Activities supported by the new grants range from the training of

older married women for teaching positions to teaching internships and new cooperative arrangements between colleges and public-school systems.

The colleges receiving the new grants are: Converse College, Northwestern University, University of Kansas City, Kansas State University, Middlebury College, University of Notre Dame, Oberlin College, and University of Pittsburgh.

Integration Report

Six percent of the three million Negroes enrolled in the South's public schools are attending classes with whites this school year, according to the *Southern School News*.

The *News* reports that 524,425 of the Negro students are in integrated school districts. An estimated 182,104 actually attend classes with whites.

The 17 southern and border states, plus the District of Columbia, have 3,039,133 Negroes and 9,901,310 whites enrolled. The District of Columbia and West Virginia have complete integration in their school systems. Six other states have substantial integration, five have partial integration, and the remaining five maintain complete segregation.

School Construction Down

Contracts for educational buildings last year dropped 8 percent from 1958, according to a year-end review of construction contracts recently published in *Building Business*.

School building, which totaled $2.6 billion in 1959, was still the fourth largest construction category despite the drop, the bulletin states. It was exceeded only by single-family homes, commercial buildings and highways.

Church-State Decision

Use of public funds to pay tuition for students attending Catholic high schools has been ruled unconstitutional by a superior court judge in Burlington, Vt.

Because the suburb has no high school, the local board has been paying tuition for students who must go to high school elsewhere, including those who attend two Catholic schools.

Judge William G. Hill, who made the ruling, declared that payments to the Catholic schools violated the first and fourteenth amendments to the Constitution.

Dates of the Coming Months:

June 26-July 1, National Education Association, Los Angeles, Calif.

July 31-Aug. 7, World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), Amsterdam, Holland.

Aug. 21-27, National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Macomb, Ill.

Oct. 7-12, Department of Rural Education, NEA, Louisville, Ky.

Oct. 14-16, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Denver, Colo.

Nov. 23-26, National Council for the Social Studies, Boston, Mass.

How to Teach Foreign Languages Effectively. Theodore Huebener. New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. x + 198. $3.00.

This book, which is designed to provide the classroom teacher of modern languages with practical aids in his teaching, is devoted primarily to the description of various methods of instruction and to the presentation of a collection of illustrations, examples, model lessons, suggested procedures, games, and devices.

More than 40 complete lessons in French, German, Italian, and Spanish lessons which have been proved successful in classroom use —are included to illustrate the various phases of language instruction.

The author points out that there is no one best method for all lessons and all teaching situations. He, therefore, gives various types of approaches.

The author is director of foreign languages in the New York City schools.

Adolescence and Discipline; A Mental Hygiene Primer. Rudolph M. Wittenberg. New York: Association Press, 1959. Pp. 318. $4.95.

This guide, written in everyday language, presents modern psychological and educational concepts of discipline as a fundamental ingredient of the maturation process. Basically, as the author points out in his introduction, it tries to answer these questions: What really is the challenge of adolescence? What are we doing to help develop discipline? Can we find ways to use our understanding to do a more skillful job?

The final section of the book, devoted to answering the third question, is the most detailed. Here the author discusses such topics as: how to support the ego; when to stop trying; how to use outside help; discipline in the classroom; how to set limits; and discipline in a democracy.

This book is designed to be helpful to both parents and teachers. The author, Dr. Wittenberg, is a practicing psychotherapist and is on the faculty of the New School for Social Research.

The Third Curriculum; Student Activities in American Education. Robert W. Frederick. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959. Pp. x + 454. $5.75.

The author believes that student activities, by whatever name they are called, are an essential part of deliberate education in America, and that they form a curriculum—the third—paralleling the required (or general) and the elective (or special) curriculums.

This book stresses the fact that the third curriculum should receive the same attention in terms of its philosophy, aims, social setting, construction, and evaluation as that given the required and elective curriculums. After discussing these aspects of the subject, the author considers specific types of student activities and gives specific details about them in view of his earlier discussion.

The Child's World: His Social Perception. Frank J. and Elizabeth W. Estvan. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xiii + 302. $4.95.

This book is about the way chil-

dren view their social world: what they "see" when looking at a farm or factory, rich people or poor, a church or capitol building.

The authors describe what children had to say about certain life situations representing contrasts in rural and urban environment, upper and lower socioeconomic background, and in child and adult activities. Comparisons are made between farm and city children, boys and girls, first- and sixth-grade pupils, as well as bright and below-average children. Out of these emerge certain generalizations about the nature and growth of children's social perception. Implications for education and for guidance conclude the presentation.

Other Materials Received:

Elementary

Teaching in the Kindergarten. (Second Edition.) Helen Bartelt Hurd. Minneapolis, Minn.: Burgess Publishing Company, 1959. Pp. iii + 160. $3.25.

Psychology at Work in the Elementary School Classroom. Beeman N. Philips, Ralph L. Duke, and M. Vere DeVault. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960. Pp. xii + 395. $5.00.

Science, Grades K-6; No. 3, Living Things. Curriculum Bulletin 2c, New York City Board of Education. Pp. 101. $.50.

Children's Views of Themselves. Ira J. Gordon. Washington, D. C.: Association of Childhood Education International, 1959. Pp. 36. $.75.

Early Childhood Education and **Oral and Written Communication, Grades 1-6.** Curriculum Bulletins No. 5 and No. 9, New York City Board of Education. Pp. 139 and 111. $.75 and $.50, respectively.

Primary School Textbooks; Preparation—Selection—Use. A Comparative Study. Unesco Publication No. 204. Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1959. Pp. 245. $2.75.

Secondary

Mathematics. First Course and **Second Course.** John A. Brown, *et al.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960. Pp. 323 and 365. $3.40 and $3.64, respectively. Texts for seventh- and eighth-grade courses.

General

The United States to 1865. Michael Kraus. **The United States since 1865.** Foster Rhea Dulles. Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan Press, 1959. Pp. xiii + 529 and ix + 546. $7.50 each, clothbound; $4.75 each, paperbound, for classroom use only.

Audio-Visuals

Listen and Learn Japanese. Three 12" LP records and manual. New York: Dover Publications, Inc., 1960. $5.95. Aimed at the student and traveler with limited study time.

Space Songs. Sixteen songs on a LP record that cover a wide variety of basic science subjects for elementary grade pupils. New York: Science Materials Center. $5.95, including a 30-page song book.

Techniques of Holding Meetings Using Audio-Visual Materials. A free booklet showing how to remedy errors commonly made in audio-visual presentations, available from Ednalite Optical Company, Inc., Audio-Visual Dept., 200 N. Water St., Peekskill, N. Y.

It's Wonderful Being a Girl. A 16mm color movie to explain the growing-up process for girls from 11 to 14. Successor to the film, "Molly Grows Up." Available on free-loan basis from Director of Education, Personal Products Corporation, Box 10, Milltown, N. J. Teaching guide also available.

Index to Volume XXV (1959-1960)

Items are listed under author's name. The month indicated is the issue of THE EDUCATION DIGEST in which the article appears, while the number refers to the page on which the article is to be found.

Alexander, William M. Reporting to Parents—Why? What? How? Feb, 21.

American Association of School Administrators, NEA. Informal Controls on Public Education. Oct, 5.

Ames, Maurice U. Teaching Science by Television. Dec, 38.

Anderson, Robert H. Team Teaching in the Elementary School. Nov, 26.

Anonymous. Our Student Council Is Over-Sponsored. May, 32.

Ashby, Lloyd B. Sizing Up the Sixties. April, 5.

Atkinson, Byron H., and A. T. Brugger. Do College Students Drink Too Much? Nov, 32.

Axtelle, George E. The Case for Basic Education. Mar, 14.

Bahou, Victor. P.T.A. Reconsidered. Mar, 4.

Bain, Edgar Collins. Russian Lesson for Americans. Oct, 26.

Ballenger, Stanley E. John Dewey: Man Ahead of His Times. Nov, 9.

Barry, Franklyn S. Selecting a Successful Teacher. Oct, 9.

Barter, Alice S. The Status of Women in School Administration. Oct, 40.

Bean, John E. Arithmetical Understandings of Elementary-School Teachers. Nov, 49.

Berenstain, Janice, and Stanley Berenstain. How to Undermine Junior's Teacher. Dec, 32.

Berenstain, Stanley, and Janice Berenstain. How to Undermine Junior's Teacher. Dec, 32.

Betar, Marion. Grade School Science Can Be Interesting. Oct, 35.

Bish, Charles E. Teaching the Upper 15 Percent. Oct, 12.

———, and Louis A. Fliegler. The Gifted and Talented. May, 34.

READER INFORMATION SERVICE

Send in this coupon to get additional information easily and quickly from the advertisers in this issue and about the materials listed in "New Educational Materials."

☐ **Viewlex Projectors**

☐ **Modern School Shop Planning**

I would also like more information on the following books and other materials listed in this issue:

....

....

Name ..... **Position** .....

Address M-60

Send to THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

Blau, Joseph L. John Dewey and American Social Thought. Mar, 28.
Boas, George. Superstitions in Education. Sept, 1.
Bodley, Elwyn J. It Pays to Pay-As-You-Go. Sept, 13.
Boeck, Clarence H. The Laboratory Approach to Science Education. Jan, 48.
Boutwell, William D. Paperbacks—The Best Invention Since the Sandwich. Dec, 16.
Brubacher, John S. Resolving the Conflict between Academic and Professional Training of Teachers. Sept, 27.
Brown, Carl A. Meeting Reality in the Classroom. Mar, 42.
Brown, J. Douglas. A Wrong Approach to the Right Problem. Feb, 14.
Brugger, A. T., and Byron H. Atkinson. Do College Students Drink Too Much? Nov, 32.
Buehring, Leo E. Trends in Teaching High-School Science. May, 21.
Buswell, Guy T. The Process of Reading. Mar, 48.

California Journal of Elementary Education. Learning Experiences in Human Relations. Dec, 44.
Chadwick, Agnes Jacques. Teaching Russian in our High Schools. Feb, 47.
Chauncey, Henry. The Rising Trend of Early Aptitude Testing. Sept, 37.
Cleary, Joseph B. Let's Sell Personal-Use Shorthand. Jan, 51.
College Entrance Examination Board. Program for College Preparatory Mathematics. Sept, 23.
Cook, Denton L. Valedictorians Are Obsolete. Sept, 30.
Cook, Walter W. Why Professional Preparation? Oct, 38.
Coons, Erwin L., and Robert W. McLain. When the School Board Says No. April, 35.
Conant, James B. A Look at the Junior-High School. April, 1.
Corey, Stephen M. Foundations and School Experimentation. Mar, 1.
———. The Conant Report on the American High School. Feb, 27.
Cremin, Lawrence A. What Happened to Progressive Education? Jan, 4.
Counts, George S. The Real Challenge of Soviet Education. Sept, 5.

Daniels, J. C., and Hunter Diack. The Phonic Word Method. Jan, 45.
Dawson, Mildred A. Children Learn as They Read. April, 44.
Dear, Robert E., and John W. French. Effect of Coaching on an Aptitude Test. Jan, 30.
DeBoer, John J. Grammar in Language Teaching. Jan, 34.
Department of Classroom Teachers, NEA. Fair Treatment. Mar, 21.
Diack, Hunter, and J. C. Daniels. The Phonic Word Method. Jan, 45.
Durrell, Donald D. Adapting Instruction to Learning Needs in the Intermediate Grades. May, 28.
Educational Policies Commission. Federal Policy and the National Interest in Education. Nov, 38.
Eells, Walter Crosby. An Educational Ranking of the States. May, 12.
Eland, Ivan L. Adolescents and the Automobile. Jan, 8.

Fliegler, Louis A., and Charles A. Bish. The Gifted and Talented. May, 34.
Flury, Ablett H. Essay Contests Are Educationally Undesirable. May, 37.
Ford Foundation, Fund for the Advancement of Education. National Program in Use of Television in the Public Schools. Oct, 22.
Franseth, Jane. Improving the Cur-

riculum and Teaching through Action Research. April, 41.
French, John W., and Robert E. Dear. Effect of Coaching on an Aptitude Test. Jan, 30.

Garber, Lee O. Illinois Court Overthrows Immunity Doctrine. Nov, 16.
Gardner, John W. The Strategy of Freedom. May, 15.
Gathright, Frances Tyrell, and Glenda Woods. "Show and Tell." Nov, 44.
Gleazer, Edmund J., Jr. Junior College Growth. May, 42.
Gordon, Julia Weber. The Teacher Makes the Difference. Nov, 29.
Grimes, Elizabeth M. Classroom Interview by Telephone. Mar, 25.
Grinnell, John E. Our Most Dangerous Neglect. April, 22.
Grisson, Loren V. Student Leadership in Evaluating Compositions. Dec, 48.

Hall, Roy M. Federal Funds—Impetus to Research in Education. Dec, 27.
Hand, Harry E. Sex in the Modern Novel—A Teaching Problem. Feb, 35.
Hanna, Jean S., and Paul R. Hanna. Psychology of Spelling. Oct, 50.
Hanna, Paul R., and Jean S. Hanna. Psychology of Spelling. Oct, 50.
Harrington, Johns H. Blueprint for a Successful Bond or Tax Election. Feb, 10.
Hart, Leo B. Typing Belongs in the Elementary Curriculum. Mar, 40.
Heathers, Glen, and Morris Pincus. The Dual-Progress Plan in the Elementary School. April, 46.
Heisner, H. Fred. Point 10 Program for Guidance. Sept, 40.
Heist, Paul, and T. R. McConnell. Do Students Make the College? Dec, 35.
Held, Virginia P. What Can We Do about "J. D."? Nov, 1.
Henzlik, Frank E. The Conant Report—A Critique. Jan, 1.
Hildreth, Gertrude. Manuscript Writing after 60 Years, May, 48.
———. Noah Webster: Crusader for American Literacy. Oct, 32.
Huston, Isabelle Chambers, and Isabel C. McLelland. Classroom Enrichment. Feb, 30.

Jewett, Arno. Changes in English Programs. Oct, 29.

Kaulfers, Walter V. Ivan Learns English. Mar, 32.
Kelly, Harry C. National Program for Education in the Sciences. Feb, 40.
Kenworthy, Leonard S. Human Aspirations Are Changing Our World. Jan, 27.
Kimpton, Lawrence A. The Public and Private University. April, 13.
Kling, Vincent G. Beauty in Schools. Nov, 19.
Klingmeyer, Faye M. Paperbacks and Hardbacks. May, 40.
Krause, Gertrude R., and William A. McCall. Measurement of Teacher Merit for Salary Purposes. Jan, 17.
Kvaraceus, William C., and Associates. Common Misconceptions and Delinquency. Nov, 5.

Larrabee, Harold A. John Dewey as Teacher. Jan, 20.
Lekachman, Robert. An Unreligious View. Oct, 18.
Lieberman, Myron. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Feb, 24.
———. Let Educators Run Our Schools. Sept, 16.
Lightfoot, Robert M., Jr. They "Never Would be Missed!" April, 32.
Litsey, David M. Comparative Study of Novels. Oct, 46.
London, Ivan D. Improvement of Mathematics Teaching in Russian Schools. Nov, 25.
Lorenz, John G. School Libraries and the National Defense Education Act. Feb, 50.

Lumsdaine, A. A. Teaching Machines and Selfinstructional Materials. Dec, 1.
Lund, Kenneth W. It's Time for a Breakthrough. Dec, 18.

MacRae, Donald G., and Helen MacRae. American Schools Surprised Us. Jan, 14.
MacRae, Helen, and Donald G. MacRae. American Schools Surprised Us. Jan, 14.
Mallinson, George Greisen. An Issue in Doubt. April, 9.
Manning, John. Discipline in the Good Old Days. Feb, 32.
March, Leland S. Motivation—The Key to Good Teaching. Jan, 24.
Marino, Santo L. A Sixth-Grade Science Program. Sept, 50.
Mayhew, Lewis B. The Relationship of Instruction to Accreditation. Feb, 44.
McCall, William A., and Gertrude R. Krause. Measurement of Teacher Merit for Salary Purposes. Jan, 17.
McConnell, T. R., and Paul Heist. Do Students Make the College? Dec, 35.
McDonald, Arthur S. Television, Books, and School Marks. Feb, 4.
McDowell, Bruce. A Bill of Rights for Classroom Teachers. Sept, 34.
McIntyre, Kenneth E. The Wonderful One-Horse Cliché. Jan, 32.
McLain, Robert W., and Erwin L. Coons. When the School Board Says No. April, 35.
McLelland, Isabel C., and Isabelle Chambers Huston. Classroom Enrichment. Feb, 30.
Mead, Margaret. A New Kind of Discipline. Dec, 13.
Meder, Albert E., Jr. Sets, Sinners, and Salvation. Jan, 38.
Meyer, Karl William. The Passing of the Teachers College. Feb, 38.
Morgan, Joy Elmer. The 1959 Horace Mann Centennial. Sept, 32.
Music Educators National Conference. Music Literature, Theory, and Composition in the High School, Oct, 48.
Mueller, Kate Hevner. The Married Student on the Campus. April, 29.
Mueller, Theodore. New Trends in Foreign Language Teaching. April, 49.

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, NEA. Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School. Nov, 40.
National Education Association Research Division. Collective Bargaining. Jan, 11.
———. Little Red Schoolhouse. May, 1.
———. Salary Schedule Progress Uneven. Mar, 7.
———. Significant Judicial Decisions. Feb, 17.
National Parent-Teacher. Pornography . . . The New Black Plague. Dec, 21.
National School Boards Association. What Price Double Sessions? May, 9.
Nelson, Calvin C., and Thomas C. Rowland. Off to School—At What Age? Dec, 50.
Nietz, John A. Analysis of Old Textbooks. Dec, 30.

Ornstein, Jacob. The Crisis in Language Training. May, 25.

Penty, Ruth C. Reading Ability and High-School Drop-Outs. Feb, 1.
Perrodin, Alex F. Student Teachers Try Action Research. Mar, 45.
Pincus, Morris, and Glen Heathers. The Dual-Progress Plan in the Elementary School. April, 46.
Porter, Peg. I Don't Want to Go to School. Sept, 20.
Puner, Helen. Discipline: Strict or Permissive? Oct, 15.

Rabin, Bernard. Teacher Use of Directive Language. Dec, 41.

Reid, Robert H. The Problem of American Degree Mills. Dec, 5.
Renfield, Richard. The Soviets Are Criticizing Their Schools. Sept, 9.
Rowland, Thomas C., and Calvin C. Nelson. Off to School—at What Age? Dec, 50.

Sandemeyer, Katherine H. Who Is Kidding Whom? Jan, 42.
School Management. How the Ford Fund Makes a Grant. May, 5.
Smith, C. Currien. Why Teachers Dislike Merit Rating. April, 18.
Smith, Lawrence J. Handwriting and Child Development. Sept, 48.
Smith, Mortimer. Basic Education: What Is It? Mar, 10.
Smith, Nila Banton. Teaching Study Skills in Reading. Feb, 7.
Snow, Robert H. The Forces of Miseducation. Dec, 9.
Stiles, Lindley J. Education in Orbit. Oct, 1.
Stull, Eugene. Multimillion-Dollar High School Dilemma. Dec, 24.

Taylor, Joshua. The Teacher of Art. Sept, 45.
Thelen, Herbert A. The Triumph of "Achievement" over Inquiry in Education. April, 25.
Thomas, Ellen Lamar. A Critical Reading Laboratory. May, 45.
Tinker, Miles A. Eye Movements in Reading. Nov, 35.
Topp, Robert, and John A. R. Wilson. Shall We Tell Parents Their Children's IQ? Nov, 12.
Traxler, Arthur E. Values and Limitations of Standardized Reading Tests. Oct, 42.
Triggs, Frances Oralind. Promoting Growth in Critical Reading. Sept, 42.

Walcott, Fred G. The Other Side of Meanness. Mar, 38.
Watson, Goodwin. What Psychology Can We Feel Sure About? May, 18.
Wegener, Frank C. The End of an Educational Epoch. Nov, 22.
Wilson, John A. R., and Robert Topp. Shall We Tell Parents Their Children's IQ? Nov, 12.
Witty, Paul. Comments on a Decade of Televiewing. Mar, 17.
Womack, Thurston. Teachers' Attitudes toward Current English Usage. Nov, 46.
Woods, Glenda, and Frances Tyrell Gathright. "Show and Tell." Nov, 44.
Zeitlin, Harry. Efforts to Achieve Federal Aid to Education. April, 38.
Zirbes, Laura. What Should We Know about Learning? Mar, 35.

To All Subscribers:

Remember—If your subscription runs for the school year, your subscription expires with this issue. Send in your renewal today.

To Superintendents of Schools:

Your school budget for your professional libraries will go farther if you take advantage of our special group subscription rates. Special rates are available for five or more copies mailed to the same address. Write for details.

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

330 Thompson Street Ann Arbor, Michigan

THE EDUCATION DIGEST STAFF

LAWRENCE W. PRAKKEN, Editor and Publisher

JEROME C. PATTERSON, Managing Editor

WARREN R. GOOD, Associate Editor

OLIVER E. HANNINEN, Assistant Editor

MARGUERITE D. TURNER, Assistant Editor

BARBARA N. LEAKE, Circulation Manager

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

ARTHUR F. COREY, Executive Secretary, California State Teachers Association, San Francisco

NATT B. BURBANK, Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colorado

HAROLD C. HAND, Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana

L. D. HASKEW, Vice-President, University of Texas, Austin

PHILIP J. HICKEY, Superintendent of Instruction, St. Louis, Missouri

H. GORDON HULLFISH, Professor of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus

HELEN K. MACKINTOSH, Chief, Elementary Schools Section, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

HOWARD Y. MCCLUSKY, Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

L. S. MICHAEL, Superintendent, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

JAMES E. RUSSELL, Secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C.

DEAN M. SCHWEICKHARD, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota

GEORGE E. SHATTUCK, Principal, The Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

RUTH G. STRICKLAND, Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington

HENRY J. WILLETT, Superintendent of Schools, Richmond, Virginia

MEMBER OF

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

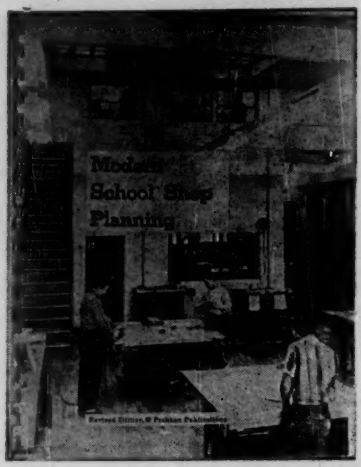
Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor, Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 1025 Harlem Ave., Glenview, Ill., PArk 4-0800. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 711 S. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697 and 465 California St., San Francicso 4, Calif., Exbrook 2-9050.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

BUILDING A NEW SCHOOL?

Here's Help in Planning the Shop Area

Modern School Shop Planning



Enlarged and Revised Edition

$3.85

184 Pages

200 Illustrations

The only book on the market that completely covers the planning problems of school shops—unit shops as well as general shops.

As a school administrator, you will find that sections devoted to standards of physical facilities of school shops will alone be of invaluable help to you and your architect in helping build a shop that will satisfy you, your staff, and the public. Safety factors in shop planning and requisition hints are also included, as well as principles of purchasing for the shop area. Profusely illustrated with pictures of new shops and suggested shop layouts.

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS

330 Thompson Street — Ann Arbor, Michigan

5-60

PRAKKEN PUBLICATIONS, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Send me a copy of MODERN SCHOOL SHOP PLANNING

☐ $3.85 enclosed ☐ Please bill me ☐ Bill my school

Name .....

Address .....

.....